

**When police become postgraduates: An intertextual analysis of research
proposals in the MTech Policing degree at an ODL university**

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Thesis Presented for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the Department of Education

Faculty of Humanities

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

June 2015

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Acknowledgements

I would like to express my appreciation for the guidance and support that I have received from both my supervisors: Lucia Thesen and Moragh Paxton. When I look back from where we started, I doubt that there could have been a better way of handling this project. They each added unique contributions to the project, which I came to appreciate through bittersweet experiences: Moragh, with her firm and matter-of-fact approach and Lucia's circuitous and insightful advice. Having two supervisors is often fraught with challenges, but I could not have survived with only one.

To my wife Palesa and my kids who had to endure it all: the long absences, and my burning the midnight candle. Over the years, we became a gypsy family searching for convenient places to enable me to continue with my studies. Both Kwandile and Sinaye do not know what a PhD is yet, but one day they will. However, they do know when daddy is not at home or is busy. I would like to thank my love for her support and encouragement, patience and prayers. We had to forego many things. I would also like to thank all the family members and the friends who kept asking me, 'when are you finishing?', until I ran out of answers. This shows they cared for my well-being.

I am grateful to Unisa for the financial support, and live days that have been provided to me through the Unisa Research and Innovation Directorate, and Human Resources. The institution has proven to me that it invests in the development of its staff. The editing and proofreading of this dissertation was done by Ms Tessa Botha, who meticulously shaped the version that went to the examiners. I would also like to thank all the coffee shops that I visited in Pretoria, Johannesburg and Cape Town, when looking for places to write. I shall make sure that I promote these businesses to all my future students, who may be in search of a space to write.

This research could not have been possible without the police department and the students who are participants. They welcomed me into their 'world', which I continue to find fascinating and enriching in my research journey. I would also like to thank all the officials and members who have contributed to this research and wish them well as they continue to serve our country amidst ever increasing criticism, and public expectations.

So many people contribute in the PhD Journey, both friends and strangers. Such as the bloggers who propel us to carry on when we feel like giving up, people whom we will never meet again. I could never exhaust the list. And thanks to God the Almighty.

Abstract

This research poses the question: How do professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing postgraduate students intersect in the research proposal at an Open Distance Learning (ODL) institution? The research proposal is chosen as the site for investigation because it is a contested, ‘gatekeeping mechanism’ which can be challenging for many students, and for their supervisors. This is a particular challenge in the current rapidly changing postgraduate sector, in which there is increased mobility between workplace domains and the university, as students return to study on a part-time basis.

The study is located in the field of academic literacies, which challenges deficit framing of student writing through the analysis of both texts and their social practices. It uses critical discourse analysis (CDA), with ethnographic framing, in order to explore and describe how professional practices in policing in post-apartheid South Africa are recontextualised in academic writing. A cross section of proposals was analysed using analytical tools such as intertextuality and interdiscursivity. In the university setting, interviews were conducted with supervisors and workshops on research methods were observed. In order to understand workplace-based practices, students were interviewed at their sites of work across the country. A hybrid curriculum model was introduced to understand the intersection of the professional, workplace, and university domains suggested by Lee et al. (2000). The findings suggest that the way students draw on the workplace, both intertextually and interdiscursively in their academic texts, results in tensions and discourse clashes between the workplace and academic knowledge practices. Whereas the academy values reflection, critical consciousness, and theoretical knowledge, the policing context puts a primary value on practice-based knowledge, compliance with rules, and the police sub-culture. Through dialogue with the researcher, students’ interpretations of their texts revealed their workplace and professional identities, notions of genre and discourse, and at times unequal power relations between different institutions. The tensions were most evident in the different audiences for which students were writing, and in the way students identified key concepts for their proposal, and how they negotiated ethics permission. The policing context was more prominent than the academic setting. However, students also show agency and strong awareness of audience through their recontextualisation strategies and hybridity in the writing of the proposal genre. This had an

impact on transitions between discourse communities and on the intersection of discourses in postgraduate academic literacies.

This research shows the contribution of CDA and ethnographic framing, in combination with a hybrid curriculum model, in uncovering the nature of the tensions that students experience in writing their research proposals. This has potential for informing supervisors and writing instructors in the ODL context by providing a better understanding of the challenges that students face. The study concludes with strategies for teaching academic literacies to MTech policing students.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

BTech – Bachelor of Technology

CDA – Critical discourse analysis

CHET – Council for Higher Education Transformation

DHET – Department of Higher Education and Training

DSS – Department of Safety and Security

EdD – Educational Doctorate

HESA – Higher Education South Africa

HOD – Head of Department

EAL – English as an additional language

MTech – Magister Technologiae

NCPS – National Crime Prevention Strategy

NLS – New Literacies Studies

NPA – National Prosecution Authority

NPHE – National Plan for Higher Education

KTC – Key Theoretical Concepts

ODL – Open Distance Learning

PWU – Profession/Workplace/University

TSA – Technikon South Africa

SA – South Africa

SAP – South African Police

SAPS – South African Police Service

UK – United Kingdom

Unisa – University of South Africa

Chapter 1

Introduction: Framing the question

1.1 Overview

One of the consequences of widening access to higher education is that the postgraduate students whom university educators encounter come from an increasing variety of workplaces and contexts (Cadman, 1997, 2000; Enders, 2004). Writing from a European perspective, Enders (2004:420) contends that ‘with the growing student body becoming more heterogeneous in terms of social background and age, levels of preparation and work experience and patterns of studying and learning than in the past, the need for introductory teaching and diversifying learning pathways has expanded and intensified.’ Many postgraduate students re-enter university from a base in the workplace and thus shuttle between the world of work and the world of academia. Yet little is known about how these students transition between their workplaces - usually their sites of research - and the university. This study focuses on the trajectories of police who enter postgraduate studies in a South African Open Distance Learning (ODL) institution, namely the University of South Africa (Unisa). The main output that postgraduate students in the Magister Technologiae (MTech) Policing degree are expected to produce is a dissertation of about 150 pages for the completion of the MTech degree.

After having worked with academics in Unisa’s Department of Police Practice, I decided to conduct research in this area, prompted by my previous work in the Writing Centre (now called Academic Literacies Centre) at Unisa. The present study employs critical discourse analysis (CDA), together with ethnographic framing, to investigate the intersection between the policing profession, with its particular values and practices around texts, and postgraduate academic discourse practices. The aim of the dissertation is to describe and explore the relationship between discourse practices in the workplace and academic contexts. In particular, I will analyse the interface between police professional and postgraduate academic discourse practices by using a case study of 20 proposals, and tracing intertextual links

outwards into various discourse practice contexts, in order to understand postgraduate student writing in the MTech Policing degree in an ODL context (where students have limited or no face-to-face contact and use a wide variety of multimedia for learning).

1.2 Background to the research problem

Founded in 1946, Unisa is the oldest exclusively distance education institution in the world, having functioned as an examining university since 1873 for other institutions, including the University of London, University of the Witwatersrand and Rhodes University. The policy changes post-1994 brought about a restructuring of higher education in the country. The new Unisa came about as a result of a merger in 2004 between Unisa and Technikon Southern Africa and the incorporation of the Vista University Distance Education Campus. In a nutshell, Unisa can be described as an ODL and a comprehensive institution. In its 2015¹ strategic planning document, Unisa's character as a comprehensive institution is defined by its articulation of the role played by general, academic and vocationally-oriented programmes in giving effect to its core functions of teaching, research and community engagement. Comprehensive institutions are a recent development in the South African higher education landscape. According to the National Plan for Higher Education, Unisa is the only dedicated ODL institution in South Africa (Ministry of Education, 2001). Current trends in ODL are characterised by 'intelligent flexible learning', full online learning and teaching, e-learning, Web-based learning and the concept of the virtual university. Unisa's 2015 strategic vision document states that the university aims to use information and communications technology (ICT) as a mode of teaching and learning. In relation to Unisa, Spencer and Louw (2008:121-123) outline some of the intrinsic weaknesses in 'teaching contexts in the developing world (including South Africa)', for example, students' lack of access to the internet, inadequate computer literacy and problems with systems capabilities. Such conditions of low access to technology force Unisa to use methods that are located in earlier generations of distance learning, while gradually introducing state-of-the-art facilities. Thorpe (2002:105) argues that ODL is characterised by a more diverse range of practices, and that some traditional print and

¹ The 2015 strategic planning document was originally published in 2008. It contains the vision, mission, and institutional operational plans.

correspondence models are still applied, in conjunction with the development of advanced online environments.

Unisa is currently redefining and positioning itself as an ODL institution. A policy on ODL was adopted in 2008, which defined ODL as being:

A multi-dimensional concept aimed at bridging the time, geographical, economic, social, and educational and communication distance between student and institution, student and academics, student and courseware and student and peers. Open distance learning focuses on removing barriers to access learning, flexibility of learning provision, student-centeredness, supporting students and constructing learning programmes with the expectation that students can succeed (University of South Africa [Unisa], 2008:2).

My work began when my colleagues and I, working as tutors in undergraduate reading and writing, initiated an intervention at the postgraduate level. We identified ten workshops which differed from the undergraduate workshop topics on offer. Whereas the undergraduate workshops were developed for generic academic discourse, the postgraduate workshops focused on research writing, for example how to write a proposal and a literature review. These workshops were customised to different disciplines. In addition to the workshops, we responded through ‘track changes’ to postgraduate students’ drafts, usually emailed to us, as the tutors, by students or supervisors. An immediate challenge was that feedback given on student writing did not always suffice in addressing some of the writing needs of Unisa’s postgraduate students. As a result, we felt at the time that combining online comments with face-to-face workshops for these students would address some of the academic literacies demands of postgraduate research writing. However, attendance amongst the MTech students was poor, because they were either far away from the university or they could not get time off work.

Between 2005 and 2007, I commented on many MTech Policing students’ written drafts. The objective was to give developmental feedback to student writers, which they could use to improve their writing. My task was to comment on the drafts of students’ writing before they submitted their work to their supervisors. I received most of the work by email. Sometimes supervisors forwarded their students’ writing directly to me.

Students sometimes received telephonic feedback and/or face-to-face feedback, over and above the written comments that they had received. It is required that applicants for this course must have completed a Bachelor of Technology degree in policing or in a related security studies field. In addition, relevant work experience is required of the students. Current enrolment in the programme consists of students who are long-serving members of the South African Police Services (SAPS), and a minority that comes from the private sector. The majority of the learners are 'mature'. They have worked as professionals in different SAPS units, such as client service centres, detective branches and victim empowerment units. Students' official ranks vary. Some hold junior positions, while others hold more senior positions. Most of the students speak English as an additional language (EAL). The racial demographics are diverse in terms of South Africa's (SA) historical racially defined categories.

MTech postgraduate students struggle to complete their dissertations through Unisa. Between 2005 and 2011, a comparison by Mouton (2013) of the graduate outputs of the ten top tertiary institutions in SA showed that Unisa was in tenth position, with an average annual number of research Masters graduates of 852.47. Mouton (2013:39) shows that it has subsequently improved slightly, by observing that 'its position on the ranking in terms of doctoral output has remained around the 8th place, whereas its position on the production of Masters graduates – its worst performing area – at least improved to 11th place in 2011', where previously it was ranked in the 13th position in South Africa. Lessing and Schulze (2002:139) report that in South African higher education, attrition and completion rates of postgraduate students are statistics that are becoming a vital concern. Undergraduate pass rates are also a problem, as illustrated by Scott, Yeld and Hendry's (2007) study, which outlines statistics of completion rates amongst undergraduate studies in all the South African higher education institutions. In relation to Unisa, the cohort study indicated that only 14% of those who registered in 2000 had graduated by 2004, 27% percent were still registered in 2007, and 59% left without graduating. They observe that performance in distance education institutions is markedly lower than in contact institutions. These low success rates were recently a subject for discussion in a presentation by Higher Education South Africa (HESA) to the Government Portfolio Committee on Higher Education and Training. 'There are relatively poor graduation rates for masters (19% against a benchmark graduation rate

target of 33% established by the 2001 National Plan for Higher Education) and doctorates (13% against a target of 20%)’ (HESA, 2014:5).

Each year Unisa sends reports to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) on the headcounts (enrolled students) and the number of students who have graduated. These are important, as the funding subsidy from DHET is based on the number of graduates an institution has every year. Holtzhausen (2005) and Schulze (2012) argue that postgraduate success rates are a burning issue in South Africa. However, ‘even first–world countries with much more homogenous student populations experience problems caused by the increasingly wide range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds of postgraduates who come from diverse learning backgrounds’ (Holtzhausen, 2005:90). Both lecturers and academic literacies facilitators agree that one of the causes of low success rates is the difficulties students have in acquiring ‘new’ discourse practices and adjusting to an academic culture. According to Braine (2002:60):

(post)graduate students not only need to build interactive relationships with their teachers, thesis supervisors, and peers, and develop effective research strategies and good writing skills, they also need to adapt smoothly to the linguistic and social milieu of their host environment and to the culture of their academic departments and institutions.

This poses a greater challenge for students who study at an ODL institution. Such students are based in the workplace, but are expected to build interactive relationships with both supervisors and writing support staff in an academic context. In contrast, ‘contact’ students have the advantage of being immersed in the academic environment, as they temporarily abandon the workplace.

Even though MTech Policing students are at a postgraduate level, learners’ academic writing appears inappropriate and holds them back from completing their proposal in one year and ideally, their dissertation in the next. They are allowed a maximum of four years for both. Tutorial Letter 101, which is given to every Unisa student, outlines the aims and objectives of a programme or degree, the syllabus, and provides administrative information. Learners are advised to read extensively, analyse, synthesise and summarise information, and to report back in written format to their supervisors.

Challenges of first-year academic writing have been well documented in studies, such as Bartholomae (1985), Kutz (1998), Neville (1996) and Gleason (2004). These studies indicate a mismatch between what academics expect as academic discourse and the texts that first-year students produce. A number of studies have indicated the ‘clash of discourses’ and ‘culture shock’ when undergraduate students acquire academic discourse. For example, Ballard and Clanchy (1988:13) argue that:

few (academics) seem to recognize the problem for what it is – an unsteady transition between cultures - or remember from their own experience the initial difficulties of adjustment, the problem of trying to fathom what constitutes acceptable behavior in a new cultural context where the ‘deep’ rules are rarely made explicit.

Zamel (1998) has argued that each time students learn academic literacy they are constructing it anew, and that academic discourse is not unitary and monolithic; students bring along their own histories.

Various definitions of academic discourse have been suggested from diverse viewpoints. Some of these emanate from psychology, linguistics, and sociocultural theories. For example, Hounsell (1988:162) describes academic discourse as ‘a particular kind of written world, with a set of conventions, or ‘code’, of its own.’ Hyland (2009:1) defines it as ‘the ways of thinking and using language which exist in the academy’. When studying academic discourse, we usually describe its features of language and academic genres in the university setting. For example, academic discourse consists of essays (in different genres), assignments, projects, lectures, seminars, research articles, and so on.

Moving to postgraduate students, a growing body of scholarship is concerned with research education and writing challenges. Aitchison and Lee (2006) explain the problem at three levels. First, there is pressure from institutions worldwide calling upon writing experts to address writing difficulties with students who are required to complete their studies in time. Second, at a theoretical level, the relationship between writing and knowledge production requires further insight:

Whatever the discipline, conceptual challenges of one kind or another exert considerable influence on the material struggles and practices of research writing for many students as they encounter the protocols and sanctions of the discursive formations of their fields of inquiry and construct and articulate positions for themselves within these fields (Aitchison & Lee, 2006:266).

And lastly, writing becomes a problem for pedagogy, in the sense that it is often relegated to support departments and is removed from supervision and research learning. The authors summarise the three as problems of policy, theory and pedagogy. All disciplines face challenges with academic discourse; therefore, research that focuses on a specific group of students or qualification is essential to inform policies and pedagogies. This scholarship has been particularly strong in Australia, building on Green and Lee's (1995) seminal paper on postgraduate studies in higher education/research education. Their paper 'explores questions of pedagogy and disciplinarity in postgraduate contexts, with particular reference to higher-level research work, and seeks to provide ways of thinking more systematically about the nexus between knowledge and identity in higher-educational practice – a dimension arguably all too often lost or muted in accounts of university research and research training' (Green & Lee, 1995:4). Their focus was more on supervision than research writing.

Several applied linguistics studies focus on teaching thesis and dissertation writing, for example, Aitchison (2003) and Paltridge (2003) on the evaluation of 'thesis writing circles', and Starfield (2003) on the evolution of a postgraduate 'Thesis Writing for Arts and Social Sciences Research Students' course. Catterall et al. (2011:8) argue that 'particular attention should be paid to the explicit transitions that occur in the development of scientific (academic) writing skills from undergraduate to honours, honours to research Masters or PhD programs and from the early to later stages of PhD candidature.' Pare, Starke-Meyerring and McAlpine (2009:180) go even further to suggest that 'linguistic and rhetorical complexities of the dissertation are simply inexpressible for most academics'. Casanave and Li (2009) present 'first-hand' stories of postgraduate academic socialisation. Recently in the South African context, Thesen and Cooper (2013) edited a collection of chapters, some of which explore what they term 'the postgraduate condition'. My research contributes to this scholarship.

1.3 Emergence of the research focus

The MTech degree requires students to first complete a proposal before writing a dissertation. During the time when I was working in the Writing Centre, I came across MTech Policing students who were struggling to complete their studies at the initial portfolio, the research proposal and the dissertation stages. I was invited to support the students in their academic reading and writing and observed that the students were struggling with a range of writing and reading skills. The Writing Centre at the time offered generic study skills workshops and one-on-one consultations for undergraduate students. These focused on skills, such as writing the academic argument, reading and note-taking skills, writing critical reviews, and strategies of academic reading. Since most of the MTech students could not attend one-on-one consultations in the Writing Centre, the supervisors forwarded students' drafts via email for me to comment on, and to help students to revise their drafts. My impressions were that the students were unable to interpret and answer questions. At that time, before commencing my PhD research, students were expected to submit a research portfolio, before undertaking the actual research proposal. I noticed that the students were writing brief answers in the portfolio, which were not suitable for the kind of critical reflection required. I remember relating this experience to that of Freire's, when he asserts that 'from the beginning, we rejected the hypothesis of a purely mechanistic literacy program and considered the problem of teaching adults how to read in relation to the awakening of their consciousness.' (1973, quoted in 1995:41-43). My perception then of police student writing was that students were unable to critically engage with ideas or to reflect on their practice when writing the initial portfolio, which was meant to guide them in writing the research proposal.

Other experiences I had in running workshops, conducting one-on-one conferences, and observing supervisory sessions between one supervisor and her students at Florida and Potchefstroom campuses, all contributed to my interest in researching police students' research writing. I recall one consultation when a postgraduate senior superintendent in his mid-forties came to the Writing Centre. I read his draft of a literature review, pointing out areas that needed adjustment. My pedagogy at that point was trying to emulate a method of 'talk around text' (Lillis 2008:359) which involves '(a) comments and reflections that go beyond writing within current dominant conventions and practices and (b) recognizes that the participants' analytic lens and perspectives are central to establishing what may be significant and important in any specific context.'

The student did not respond in the spirit of dialogue; instead, he expected me to dictate answers to him. He showed no willingness to paraphrase and to critically engage with the ideas in his draft. The communication was monologic and tutor dominated. Scholars of language learning in distance education observe that there is little research on what goes on during such interactions (White, 2003). In my experience in ODL, tutors dominate the interaction.

These initial thoughts led me to start looking for explanations of this phenomenon from within police culture and the workplace. The students were experiencing a number of transitions: that is, the transition from BTech to MTech, and the transition from work to academic studies, unlike undergraduate students, whom van Schalkwyk (2007) describes as crossing boundaries from school to university, when referring to first years. Evans (1995:23), on supervising postgraduate research in ODL universities, asserts that:

In postgraduate research, supervisors may no longer find themselves supervising young students, who are fully committed to their research as they eke out their scholarships until graduation. It is more likely they will be dealing with students as old or older than themselves, who juggle work and family commitments alongside their research, and may well earn more than their supervisors.

I looked to international studies that had been conducted on the training of police. A key theorist, who later came to inform this study, is Adlam (1999, 2002). Adlam (1999) describes how an educational process at Bramshill (United Kingdom), attempting to generate a reflective practitioner, was unsuccessful. The reason for failure may have been attributed to the gulf between practice and theory, whereby the tutors on the programme had theoretical knowledge and the police had practical knowledge (Adlam 1999). Several teaching strategies were employed to integrate theory with practice. However, Adlam (1999:59) argues that the police cultural milieu is at odds with the academy: 'In a curious way, police are 'looked after' and come to depend upon their organization for the resolution of problems. Thus, there is neither the psychological need nor the psychological demand to become reflective practitioners.'

Critical reflection on one's practice appears to be at odds with the 'rank-and-file' nature of police officers' practice (Adlam, 1999). In later work, Adlam deepens his analysis of this culture clash, using Foucault's notion of governmentality (Foucault, 1994). Adlam (2002) outlines how what he calls a 'socio-biological elitist rationality' forms part of

the leadership discourse, which is part of the 'deep structure' of police culture. Adlam argues that its core is that 'we, the police know best' (2002:25). White (2006:399) argues that such a behavioural framework 'is a mechanism that permits the service to reinforce the tendency to command and control, rather than enabling open questioning of its intrinsic value to society'. Having read about value systems and police leadership training in the United Kingdom and Australia, I have based my research focus on police professionals pursuing postgraduate studies. Police professionals are under the spotlight in SA at the moment, with the establishment, in 2013, of a new university to train the police, based at Paarl in the Western Cape, in partnership with Unisa.

The transition from work to academic contexts has been described as the movement from one discourse community to another discourse community (Swales, 1990; Johns, 1997), and from one community of practice to another community of practice, (Wenger, 1998). These are concepts I return to later because they enable us to think about the relationship between sites, and where the tensions lie. I am interested in the transition from work to academic writing. For example, Rai and Lillis (2012) compare the academic writing practices and professional writing practices of qualified social work students in the UK, and argue that there is no link between the two. In South Africa and elsewhere, there has been a greater focus on the transition from school to university among first years (Paxton 2006; Thesen & van Pletzen, 2006; van Schalkwyk, 2007), or from undergraduate to postgraduate level (Leibowitz, 2004; Bangeni, 2012, 2013) or from school to work (Le Maistre & Pare, 2004), than from the workplace to the university (Cooper, 2011). Some studies that I draw on explore the transition from the professional/workplace contexts to the academic context (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007; Anderson, Day, & McLaughlin, 2008). My research investigates the intersection of these discourses in three distinct contexts, referred to as professional (P), workplace, (W), and university (U), drawing on Lee et al.'s (2000) P/W/U hybrid curriculum model, explained in Chapter 2.

As mentioned above, there is a growing body of research that is investigating postgraduate research writing. These studies emanate from a concern with difficulties in research writing in English (Cadman 2002, 2004; Enders, 2004; Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Kamler & Thompson, 2006, Woodward-Kron, 2007; Wang & Li, 2008; Casanave & Li, 2009), among others. In addition, some of the challenges within postgraduate research writing have been connected to professional students returning to do academic

or professional degrees at the level of Masters and PhD qualifications. San Miguel and Nelson (2007) examine the complexities encountered by professional doctorate nursing students, such as the challenges of writing practice-based research, which includes: framing a real-world problem as a research issue; incorporating one's own (and others') professional knowledge; and using the literature to contextualise and theorise the issues under investigation. These are the kinds of clashes that interest me.

The present study focuses on MTech degree proposal writing, because a research proposal acts as a gatekeeping instrument in determining who should go onto writing a dissertation. Cadman (2002:89) states that 'it is a gatekeeping assessment tool used to confirm or deny the student's entry from a first or probationary phase, into a second phase of candidature.' A proposal is significant in that it represents some of the features of discourses that students bring along to the university, as it is the first extended text that students are expected to produce before being registered for the dissertation. Other discourses operating within student writing are also likely to be revealed at this stage. The research proposal has received less attention in the literature on postgraduate research writing. Studies tend to focus on MA and PhD dissertation-writing experiences and not specifically on proposal writing (Paltridge, 2003; Anderson, Day & McLaughlin, 2008).

1.4 Theoretical positioning: Academic literacies

My study is situated within academic literacies as a theory or 'contested approach' (Russell, Lea, Parker, Street & Donahue, 2009:398). Academic literacies draws on New Literacies Studies (NLS) (Street, 1984); Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1992); and Critical Language Awareness (Ivanic, 1998). Within the NLS, writing and reading are understood as 'social and context-dependent practices that are influenced by factors such as power relations, the epistemologies of specific disciplines and students' identities' (Wingate & Tribble, 2012:482). Street is credited for his contribution to research on literacy by arguing that there is both an autonomous model and an ideological model of literacy (Street, 1984). 'The autonomous model of literacy suggests that literacy is a decontextualised skill, which once learned can be transferred with ease from one context to another' (Russell et al. 2009:399). Street criticises this autonomous view of literacy and instead proposes an ideological view of literacy, whereby the focus is on acknowledging the socio-culturally embedded nature of

literacies (Street, 1984). 'The ideological model highlights the contextual and social nature of literacy practices, and the relationships of power and authority which are implicit in any literacy event' (Russell et al. 2009:399).

NLS views the literacy demands of the curriculum as involving a variety of communicative practices, including genres, fields and disciplines (Lea & Street, 2000 & 2006). Lea and Street (1998) state that the notion of academic literacies has developed from the area of NLS. Lea and Street (1998, 2000) argue that educational research into student writing in higher education has fallen into three main perspectives or approaches: 'study skills'; 'academic socialization' and 'academic literacies'. According to Lea and Street (1998:158–159), the study skills approach views students' learning as a deficit. The tendency is therefore to attempt to fix these deficits through, for example, 'atomised skills', surface language, grammar and spelling. The academic socialisation approach attempts to acculturate students into academic discourse, through, for instance, inculcating students into a new 'culture'; focusing on student orientation to learning and interpretation of learning tasks, for example 'deep', 'surface'; 'strategic' learning; and a homogenous 'culture'. Lastly, the academic literacies approach describe students' negotiation of conflicting literacy practices. It views literacies as social practices at the level of epistemology and identities; institutions as sites of discourses and power; where there is a variety of communicative repertoire, for example genres, fields, disciplines; there is switching with respect to linguistic practices, social meanings and identities; language and context are inseparable; and a view of language as discourse. The three approaches are not mutually exclusive; for example, the academic socialization may include aspects of study skills. However, Lea and Street (1998) argue in favor of academic literacies. Lea and Street (1998, 2000) outline how each of the three approaches are underpinned by one or the other of the two conceptual models of literacy mentioned above.

Lillis and Scott (2007:13) use the plural term 'academic literacies' rather than the singular form, 'academic literacy' to 'signal a specific epistemological and ideological approach towards academic writing and communication'. In the literature there is no neat correlation between the use of the singular or plural form (Lillis & Scott, 2007:13). The authors then provide descriptions of what may be termed 'strategic' uses of the forms to signal institutionally 'specific participants, contexts and purposes' (Lillis &

Scott, 2007:16). In this research, I use the plural form, in line with the epistemology and ideology already mentioned above; however, I also use the singular form, when quoting some of the authors in order to maintain the cited author's position. From the student point of view, a dominant feature of academic literacy practices is the requirement to switch practices between one setting and another (course switching), to deploy a repertoire of linguistic practices appropriate to each setting, and to handle the social meanings and identities that each evokes. For example, Lea and Street (1998:162) observe that:

what makes a piece of student writing 'appropriate' has more to do with issues of epistemology than with the surface features of form to which staff often have recourse when describing their students' writing. That is to say, underlying, often disciplinary, assumptions about the nature of knowledge (e.g., context bound) affects the meaning given to the terms 'structure' and 'argument.

Indeed, academic literacies research privileges 'practices' over 'text' (Lillis & Scott, 2007; Wingate & Tribble, 2012). According to Lillis and Scott (2007:12), the focus on practices foregrounds a number of things, among others, the impact of power relations on student writing and the contested nature of academic writing conventions. Another crucial aspect is that of a transformative ideology, rather than a normative ideology. 'We argue that it is a transformative interest in meaning making, set alongside a critical ethnographic gaze focusing on situated text production and practice' (Lillis & Scott, 2007:13). In SA, NLS as a framework has made an important contribution to understanding the complex relationship between students' writing and academic discourse (Boughey, 2002, 2008; McKenna, 2004; Paxton, 2006; Thesen & van Pletzen, 2006). This has occurred against a backdrop of the changes that began with the democratic transition and the restructuring of higher education in order to increase participation in and widen access to tertiary education. Baynham and Prinsloo (2009) have edited a volume on the 'third generation' of NLS, where the emphasis is on transitioning between contexts, and social and technological changes.

Academic literacies also draws on both CDA and ethnography. As stated by Lillis and Scott (2007:11), 'the principal methodology inherent in an ideological model of literacy is that of ethnography, involving both observation of the practices surrounding the production of texts – rather than focusing solely on written texts – as well as

participants' perspectives on the texts and practices'. This study uses Fairclough's (1992) model of CDA. CDA has been used by academic literacies research and pedagogy, for example Lillis (2001) and Kamler and Thomson (2006). The model is useful in uncovering the power relations and institutional practices that often work against students who want to access academic discourse. In Chapter 3, I describe the research design for my research as 'Critical Discourse Analysis with Ethnographic Framing.' As part of new directions and research areas, Lillis and Scott (2007:22) call for more 'ethnographically sensitive text analytic tools'.

CDA is able to uncover a number of so-called 'discourse clashes' (Bizzel, 1986:295; Bangeni & Kapp, 2006:73, 81) which will be explored in the dissertation. Bangeni and Kapp (2006:73, 81), in a course that teaches writing to first-year students at the University of Cape Town (UCT), describe how there is a 'clash of discourses' when students enter academia. One of the students in the UCT course, (Suraya), struggled with the genre of an argumentative essay because of her personal views and experiences. The clash was between the academic discourse values taught in the course and students' life worlds. Similarly in America, Bizzel's study (1986:295), though slightly older, describes an approach that says the 'basic writers' problem on entering college is that they face a clash, not of dialects, but of discourse forms.' She describes the clash as the attempt by students to use academic discourse conventions that belong to other contexts, when faced with the requirements and unfamiliarity of such conventions.

In summary, my research seeks to explore and describe the discourse clashes between professional discourse conventions and academic discourse conventions among postgraduate police students, as they write their MTech proposals. Having described the background and context for the study, the emergence of the research focus, and writing as a social practice, I now present the questions that this dissertation seeks to answer:

1.5 Research aim and questions

Postgraduate students who are already professionals, enter the academic context with different discourse practices. This study poses the following questions:

Main question

1. How do workplace and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing graduate students intersect in the research proposal?

Sub-questions

1. What are the discourse practices in the police workplace context?
2. How are these discourse practices recontextualised in academic writing in the MTech proposals?
3. What are the writing-based practices and values in the MTech degree?
4. What are the textual histories of MTech proposals?
5. What are the implications of mediating proposal writing in an ODL context?

1.6 Significance of the study

My interest in the intersection between policing discourses and academic discourses stems from my previous work in Unisa's Writing Centres. My initial impression was that MTech Policing students were unable to critically engage with ideas or to reflect on their professional practice when writing their initial portfolio, which was meant to guide them in writing their research proposal. Once this portfolio had been discontinued, students had to write a research proposal immediately after registration. In my view, the texts that students wrote indicated that they were unfamiliar with certain academic discourse practices. Rather than being prescriptive, or judgemental about good and bad writing, or labelling students' texts as poor in English language proficiency, or as the work of previously disadvantaged students and so on, this study explores in more depth what was taking place in the clash between discourses. It explores the relationship between writing and forms of knowledge in three contexts: Professional, Workplace and University (PWU). It also hopes to contribute to the small number of studies, for example that of Jacobs (2013), which argue for the importance of knowledge in academic literacies education, by taking academic literacies to a new knowledge domain, i.e. the police.

The main contribution of this research is to the academic literacies tradition of research in the postgraduate field known as ‘advanced academic literacy’ or ‘postgraduate literacies’. It adds to this tradition by exploring the discourse tensions between the police professional context and the university. Policing and higher education institutions have undergone transitions since the advent of democracy in 1994. It is important to explore the relationships between the two institutions and the effects on the discourse practices of each.

The study is also significant because it explores the intersection between Unisa and SAPS where the vast majority of people are multilingual, although the language in which key texts are produced is English. In the findings of this research, I will be able to describe academic discourses, and the use of the English language in both academic and professional contexts in the MTech Policing degree.

In addition to the importance of the policing context, the study is situated in an ODL context, where little is known about academic literacies policies, theories and pedagogy. The findings from this study will be brought back to the ODL context, in which I work, to mediate academic literacies for postgraduate students and make recommendations for writing pedagogy, for example for those involved in Writing Centres. This will contribute to the mediation of writing instruction in an ODL context. The study seeks to explain how postgraduate research writing in an ODL context can be understood within the notion of writing as a social practice. My assumption was that the clash between discourses that students experience in postgraduate research writing was a result of being mature or adult students, who come from different professional backgrounds and discourse communities. Bhatia (2008:171) views professional discourse, not only as text and genre, but, more importantly, also as professional practice within the broader context of institutional, professional, organisational and disciplinary cultures. Through description and analysis, Bhatia’s study sought to understand discourses and practices which are embedded in institutions. This study is about uncovering and bringing the clashes and contradictions to the surface, in order to help policing students to navigate these. As discussed above, the police have a unique professional identity, which is at odds with the academy. This poses a challenge for supervisors, who are supposed to ‘apprentice’ students into the academic community. This study describes the relationship between the police and academic discourses.

Few or no studies exist which explore the teaching of writing to police postgraduate research students at a comprehensive ODL institution. The university is constantly facing challenges in teaching reading and writing across different disciplines. Responses to these challenges range from setting up interventions, such as online language programmes and academic literacies centres across different regions within South Africa (though these are less favourable because the university prefers non face-to-face interventions), to expensive short courses and workshops, which promise to help students to write effective proposals within a day or a week, offered by private organisations and in some cases by Unisa departments, and so on. At present, I get invited to participate in a week-long yearly intervention, organised by the Department of Police Practice, for MTech Policing students. I usually facilitate a workshop session on 'Academic reading and writing'. I describe fully what happens during this workshop in Chapter Four, where I set out the contexts of this research. The workshop plays a significant role in framing the context of the research and the ethnographic perspective, outlined in Chapter Three. My research will contribute to the implications of research and writing instruction in an ODL context.

This research also intends to offer strategies on how to provide training on language, discourse or communication within the South African Police Service (SAPS). There is an ongoing project in Unisa's English Department to offer language and literacy training for SAPS. This has been formalised through a new partnership between Unisa and SAPS in setting up a university for police, based in the Western Cape Province. As one of the project coordinators, I hope to use the insight gained from this research to inform current and future interventions and partnerships between Unisa and SAPS.

1.7 Outline of chapters

Chapter One

Introduction: Framing the Questions

In chapter One, I describe changes in the post-1994 South African higher education field. These changes impact on the context of the MTech proposal writing. I then describe the ODL context as a mode of teaching and learning. I also describe the

research problem within the context of the work done by Writing Centres and academic writing interventions. I begin to theorise these interventions within academic literacies – as a theoretical framework for my research, and explain the significance of the research.

Chapter Two

Discourses, Policing, Knowledge and Intersections: Theoretical and Conceptual Overview

This chapter covers four areas. These are discourse as a social practice, the police in South Africa and in an international context, the transition by police students to academic discourse, and lastly, the relationship between knowledge and discourse. I am interested in discourse as a social practice in order to draw from Fairclough's (1992) orientation to discourse and to apply this to academic literacies (Lillis, 2001; Lillis & Scott, 2007). Such a view of discourse is helpful because it opens up other variables within discourse, such as the debates on discourse communities, the role of multilingualism, and the comparison between undergraduate academic discourse and postgraduate academic discourse. In the second part of the chapter, I move to the police context. The academic and the police contexts give rise to tensions and discourse clashes between professional and academic discourses because of the transition by postgraduate students from the workplace to the academic context. Studies on police culture and training in the UK, Australia, and South Africa are then evaluated. The chapter will also examine some of the media representations of the police in South Africa; from the apartheid era to the democratic dispensation. The third section foregrounds knowledge in the academic and the workplace contexts. I draw on theories relating to Mode 1 and 2 knowledge, for example Gibbons et al. (1994) and to the (PWU) hybrid curriculum model, for example Lee et. al. (2000), in understanding the tensions and discourse clashes in the two discourse communities of policing and academia, within the current context of the way the MTech is offered at Unisa. Due to the unique nature of the study, which examines academic literacies of police students in an ODL context, it has been necessary to assemble different theoretical approaches, which have not been previously brought together, in order to answer my research questions. For instance, I have drawn from education (e.g. knowledge), linguistics (discourse and genres), and the MTech degree (Policing discipline). The last section of the chapter describes hybridity and

foregrounds the proposal genre as social practice.

Chapter Three

Critical Discourse Analysis with Ethnographic Framing

The first part of the chapter outlines the research design and the research methodology to be applied in describing the intersection of academic and police discourses. The study is based on Critical Discourse Analysis with Ethnographic Framing. Methods of data collection comprised students' writing, observations, and semi-structured interviews with both the supervisors and the students. The main approach for data analysis was an ethnographic perspective. This was supported by CDA as an analytical framework (Fairclough, 1992), to corroborate some of the findings. The second part of the chapter outlines the initial pilot study and the gradual shifts until the core sample in the dissertation. Before selecting the analytical concepts, a preliminary analysis was conducted, which began with 20 proposals; these were then reduced to 10 proposals, and then eventually focused on six proposals. The preliminary analysis of 20 proposals enabled the selection of a number of appropriate analytical concepts, which were used in a close analysis of just 10 proposals. This chapter ends with a description of the analytical concepts that are used in the data analysis. These include CDA analytical concepts, such as modality, style, genre, intertextuality, and recontextualisation.

Chapter Four

The Academic and the Policing Socio-cultural Contexts

This chapter describes the empirical findings that characterise the professional, workplace and academic contexts (PWU); in other words, academia and the police. It is an analysis of the sociocultural context and an application of the PWU 'hybrid curriculum' conceptual model of the MTech degree, without the students' texts. I first discuss the MTech curriculum document (Tutorial Letter 101) as a representation of the supervision and tuition offered. This reveals possible interpretations of Tutorial Letter

101 in an ODL context. The chapter uses findings from the semi-structured interviews with one student and four supervisors, and from an observation of a research proposal workshop given for MTech students. The supervisors highlight their expectations, disciplinary requirements, and their views on police culture. The workshop reveals some of the values and discourse practices in the police workplace and culture, which impacts on academic discourse.

Chapter Five

Tensions When Police Students Write Their Proposals: An Intertextual Exploration

In this chapter, the findings from an intertextual analysis of six proposals are presented. This chapter is based on a critical discourse analysis of the proposals, exploring the tensions and discourse clashes in students' writing, using intertextuality and interdiscursivity. Two main themes are presented: firstly, in most of the proposals, the key theoretical frameworks are drawn from the workplace context, resulting in a mixture of workplace and academic terms; secondly, police professional discourses clash with academic discourse in the writing of the literature review section of the proposals. This chapter uncovers the tensions and discourse clashes from a linguistic analysis. A linguistic analysis exposes the discourse clashes and contradictions inherent in students' proposals, within a PWU context model. It suggests how hybridity is harnessed in the process of students' meaning-making practices.

Chapter Six

Interdiscursivity and Recontextualisation Processes in Academic Writing: A Case of Maggie and Siphso

Findings from the semi-structured interviews with two of the students and supervisor are analysed in this chapter, using CDA with ethnographic framing. This is done in order to partly build what Lillis (2001) calls 'talk around texts'. Two contrasting case studies are presented. This chapter attempts to index the analysis to the contexts discussed in Chapter Four. The chapter examines how students 'animate' and 'transform' aspects of

intertextuality in order to produce the proposal. The focus is mainly on the discursive practices: interdiscursive analysis and recontextualisation process analysis. I compare the discourse types each student draws from, and how these discourse types are recontextualised in academic writing. The recontextualisation strategies are gleaned from the interviews with both the students and supervisor. Linguistic analysis of excerpts from the proposals is conducted, in order to situate the discussion, before interpreting the interviews. Recontextualisation works differently for Sipho, as he seems to have less agency than Maggie.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion and Implications for Teaching Writing

The conclusion begins with an overview of the findings. The chapter analyses the findings from Chapters Four, Five and Six, based on Fairclough's CDA model, the PWU model, and Mode 1 and 2 knowledges. I then explain how my research questions were answered, by using discursive and social practice analysis. Before making recommendations, I reflect on the research methods, theories and findings and suggest possible areas for future research. Finally, implications for mediation in an ODL institution will be presented.

Chapter Two

Discourses, Policing, Knowledge and Intersections: Theoretical and Conceptual Overview

2.1 Introduction

Some of the challenges of police academic writing were discussed in Chapter One. I described the changing context of postgraduate higher education and its impact on student diversity. The focus of this research is on how academic discourse and professional discourse intersect when students write research proposals in the MTech Policing degree. This chapter presents the theoretical and conceptual approaches that will help in answering the question.

In the first section, I discuss the theoretical approach of discourse as a social practice (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 2003). I then explore how the concept of discourse communities continues to be relevant, even within writing as a social practice approach in the ODL context of postgraduate research writing. Since language and multilingualism are part of discourse as a social practice, I describe some of the difficulties with academic discourse in general experienced by students for whom English is an additional language. I then discuss challenges in the acquisition of undergraduate academic discourse and compare these to the growing field of postgraduate academic literacies.

In Section 2.2, I describe police reforms in South Africa by firstly focusing on the transformation in policing from the apartheid era to policing in the democratic dispensation. This is followed by a description of police university education in general and the so-called ‘clash of knowledges’. In anticipation of the analytical model, I discuss policing as a profession, professional degrees and the transition across professional discourse communities. This section is mainly on the socio-political context of policing, police culture, the professional dimension, professionalism, and discourse.

In Section 2.3, I theorise knowledge in discourse and in professional degrees. In two subsections, I explain the relationship between academic discourse and knowledge, and

describe international research on Mode 1 and 2 knowledge and on the hybrid curriculum (PWU).

In Section 2.4, I review some of the theoretical analytical concepts needed in order to answer the main question, which is concerned with how professional and academic discourses intersect in MTech Policing research proposals. It does this by exploring notions of hybridity in discourses. In order to understand the relationship between professional and academic discourses, I describe the postgraduate proposal genre as a ‘contested’, gatekeeping mechanism, within the broader debates about genre as a social practice and academic literacies.

The next section identifies key debates and concepts in approaches to writing that foreground discourse as social practice.

2.1.1 Discourse as a social practice: An academic literacies approach

As mentioned in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4), NLS in South Africa has used approaches, including writing as a social practice, and focusing on identities, epistemological access, and discourses (Boughey, 2005; Jacobs, 2005; Thesen & van Pletzen 2006). A focus on discourse and practices has been one of the principles within the academic literacies framework (Street, 2010). Before describing the relationship between ‘discourse’ and ‘practice’, I will start by defining the concept of ‘discourse’, which is associated with language. The key debate concerns the relationship between discourse and language. Those who see discourse as bigger than language tend to draw on the notion of discourse put forward by Foucault. For example, Pennycook (1994:128) argues that ‘discourse does not refer to language...but to ways of organizing meaning that are often, though not exclusively, realized through language’. In a discussion that argues about the relationship between language and discourse, while borrowing from Foucault, Pennycook takes a view that discourse is bigger than language; it is about ‘systems of power or knowledge within which we take up subject positions’(1994:128). With a similar focus on discourse as systems of power/knowledge, the term ‘discourse’ has also been defined by Fairclough (2003) and Kress (1985). Fairclough (2003:124) defines discourse as ‘ways of representing aspects of the world – the processes, relations and structures of the material world, the “mental world” of thoughts, feelings, beliefs and so forth, and the “social world”’. Kress (1985:7) states that:

‘Discourses are systematically-organized sets of statements which give expression to the meanings and values of an institution. Beyond that, they define, describe, and delimit what it is possible to say and not possible to say (and by extension – what to do or not to do) with respect to the area of concern of that institution, whether marginally or centrally.’

Ivanic and Lillis are theorists, whose approach to discourse is useful for this study. Both foreground the social, but also pay attention to language. Ivanic (1998:37) observes that the term ‘discourse’ is good because it foregrounds the concern with social issues in the study of language. She further argues that ‘an advantage of using the word ‘language’ is that it foregrounds the linguistic aspects of discourse, which can become obscured by the broader scope of the term ‘discourse’’ (ibid).

In order to connect discourse (language) with practices, Lillis (2001:34) offers three distinct premises for referring to language practice. Firstly, language use (spoken or written) is bound up with what people do in the material and social world. Secondly, what people do with language is repeated, practiced, and becomes representational resources that are implicit and routine. Thirdly, at an abstract level, ‘practices have become dominant within particular domains of social life, and these involve and invoke particular values, beliefs and identities, all of which contribute to the maintenance of particular social structural relations’(Lillis 2001:34). The three levels of language practice are not mutually exclusive. However, it is possible to give more emphasis to one aspect or the other. It will become clear in this study that the main focus is based on the second premise (c.f. Chapter 3). This study views practices as part of discourse; hence my use of the term ‘discourse practices’.

In research on student writing in higher education, Lillis (2001) theorises a ‘gap’, or ‘disconnect’ between academic institutional discourses and what students bring along. NLS has also associated discourse with Gee’s distinction between primary Discourses and secondary Discourses (Gee, 1989, 1998, 1999, 2012). According to Gee (2012:165) ‘Primary Discourses are those to which people are apprenticed early in life during their primary socialization as members of particular families within their sociocultural settings. Secondary Discourses are those to which people are apprenticed as part of their socializations within various local, state, and national groups and institutions outside

early home and peer-group socialization, for example, churches, gangs, schools, offices.’ However, Gee observes that this distinction is constantly negotiated and contested. Gee (2012:167-168) observes that Discourses (with a capital letter ‘D’) are mastered through acquisition rather than learning, and that ‘if you have no access to the social practice, you don’t get in the Discourse, you don’t have it.’ Collins (2000:71) states that individuals are socialized into Discourses and that Discourses are often in conflict. For example, in ethnographic literacy studies conducted by Heath (1983, quoted in Gee, 1998:58) some school-based secondary Discourses conflict with the values and viewpoints in some non-mainstream children’s primary discourses. This research examines the conflicts amongst police and academic discourses, both of which can be described as secondary Discourses in terms of Gee’s explanation. Gee (2012:174) argues that some degree of conflict and tension between competing discourses will almost always be present. Gee (1999:21) observes that ‘Discourses have no discrete boundaries because people are always, in history, creating new discourses, changing old ones, and contesting and pushing the boundaries of Discourses.’ However, in the context of postgraduate academic literacies, educators have to address the conflicts and tensions, in the interests of helping students to access institutional discourse practices.

Discourses² can relate to each other in differing ways. For example, Pennycook (1994:132) is interested in exploring with students, ‘how English in Hong Kong intersects with discourses of popular culture, national culture, capitalism, colonialism, and education.’ Hoadley-Maidment (2000:166-169) expounds on the relationship between academic literacies or academic discourse, and professional education. She argues that we need to examine the commonalities between the writing done by, for example, nurses and social workers, and undergraduate academic writing. Research on academic discourse has tended to use theoretical approaches, based on the notion of discourse communities.

Due to the fact that my study is interested in both the research and application of academic literacies, it is necessary to revisit some of the theoretical debates on academic literacies, such as those of Lillis & Scott (2007) mentioned in Chapter 1. One debate

² In the NLS tradition the terms discourses and literacies have been used interchangeably. What is important is the focus on writing as a social practice and a recognition of a multiplicity of practices (Russell et al. 2009:399).

involves ‘discourse communities’. Membership of a discourse community is partly based on languages that are spoken in that community. Due to the contrasting discourse communities in this study (i.e. professional and academic), the possible discourse clashes, and the concept of ‘clash of knowledges’ (c.f. 2.2.2 below on police culture), the notion of a discourse community seems indispensable. This is discussed in the following section.

2.1.2 Membership of academic discourse communities

Swales (1990) and Aitchison and Lee (2006:274) regard individual academic disciplines as discourse communities. According to Bizzell (1992), a discourse community draws on the sociolinguistic concept of ‘speech community’, as well as the literary notion of interpretive community. A discourse community is a group of people who share certain language-using practices, ‘bound together primarily by its use of language’ (Bizzell, 1992:222). Furthermore, it shares some kind of ‘collective project’ that unifies the group, where key interpretive activities are shared by members. According to Johns (1997:51-52), the focus for discourse community is on text and language or genres. Swales (1990:24-27) outlines six characteristics of a discourse community:

A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals, it has a mechanism of intercommunication among its members and it uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback; a discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims, and, in addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific texts; lastly, a discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discursal expertise.

More recently, some scholars in the academic literacies tradition have critiqued this position. Ivanic (1998) offers a critique of the notion of discourse community, but in the end chooses to modify its definition, while using it in her research. In Ivanic’s argument, Swales’ use of the concept underscores both an abstract and a concrete entity. Ivanic surmises that the abstract relates to ‘the context of culture, the sociohistorically produced norms and conventions of a particular group of people who define themselves by, among other things, their discourse practices’ (Ivanic, 1998:78). The concrete refers

to identities, values and practices of real individuals, and is associated with the plural use of academic discourse communities. Ivanic (1998) questions the boundaries between the discourse communities, and indeed what a definition of a 'community' is. In her modification, she says that by discourse community she means a 'community in which spoken and written discourse is one element among others' (Ivanic, 1998:80-81). In my research, I will use other aspects like culture, and workplace practices, to define the communities. Furthermore, Woodward-Kron (2004:158) provides a critique of the notion of discourse communities and apprenticeship in the context of undergraduate education students' writing:

The relatively 'negative' findings about the participant perspectives of discourse community and apprenticeship suggest that these concepts need to be viewed critically by tertiary literacy practitioners and EAP teachers, particularly in vocationally oriented disciplines. Practitioners who uncritically adopt the concepts of discourse community and apprenticeship risk making connections and generalisations about student writing that may be inaccurate and misleading in specific disciplinary contexts.

In my research I use 'discourse communities' to refer to the specific professional police community and the police academic discourse community, constituted by a 'range of values, assumptions and practices' (Ivanic, 1998:82). What makes it complex to define a discourse community is that at times there may be contradictions, conflicts and tensions in the boundaries and within the discourse communities. The notion of a discourse community continues to be relevant in academic literacies research because of the diverse domains and boundary crossing (Lillis & Scott, 2007). Becher and Trowler (2001:50) argue that membership of a disciplinary community in its fullest sense involves 'the ability to define the situation correctly and to use the type of discourse required by that very situation,' and that graduate students have to acquire their sense of what the disciplinary values comprise. Dong (1996:453) observes that 'lack of membership and social contact with a professional discourse community may exert more weight on non-native speakers, rather than negative influence from students' native language and culture. This is likely to be the case with postgraduate students studying through an ODL institution, such as Unisa. Chapter One noted that Unisa

students are not detached from the workplace. They study through distance education; therefore, there is less interaction with the academic discourse community.

For the majority of South African postgraduate students, another important variable that has to be considered is that of multilingualism and writing in English as an additional language, as a feature of academic discourse communities. The role of academic literacies in English is important in a study of written discourse practices. Van de Poel and Gasiorek (2012:295) argue that:

Writing as an academic practice requires a considerable amount of language competence, especially when the language being used is a second or foreign language for the speaker. Second or Foreign Language learners must not only learn the norms, values, and expectations related to academic writing as anyone seeking to engage in this community would but also they have to learn the vehicle (i.e., the language, the words) for it, an additional challenge.

I discuss some of the challenges of English as an additional language among multilingual postgraduate students below.

2.1.3 The role of English as an additional language in academic discourse

Proficiency in the official language of tuition affects teaching and learning encounters because language, teaching and learning are intertwined. Within the South African multilingual context, most students speak English as a second language, or what we have come to describe as first additional or second additional language. The majority of Unisa students are multilingual and are less well prepared to study at an English medium institution than are students whose first language is English.

South Africa has eleven official languages. However, English continues to dominate academic discourse. The challenges faced by postgraduate students who are non-English speakers have been documented in studies concerned with academic literacies, English as an Academic Purpose (EAP), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), among others. For example, Bitchener and Basturkmen (2006:5-6) give an overview of research on perceptions of difficulties of postgraduate L2 thesis writing. They focus on two areas. These are difficulties at sentence and paragraph level and difficulties in understanding the requirements of the thesis genre. Braine (2002) presents an overview

of research that has been conducted on issues concerning academic literacy and non-native speaker (NNS) graduate students.

Multilingualism poses challenges in terms of teaching academic writing to students because they belong to different ‘discourse communities’. Canagarajah (2002:31) asserts that ‘multilingual students already come with membership in other communities of practice, and that holding membership in two different communities may not be easy - especially if they have a history of antagonistic relations.’ This study seeks to explore how postgraduate students experience reading and writing in English as an additional language when entering academia, considering that they may be members of different discourse communities, for example speakers of other South African official languages.

Two questions raised in Daoud (2000:77) are ‘how multilingual discourse communities function in specific academic/occupational domains and how the transfer of strategies can be promoted across language backgrounds.’ Among the MTech students, several of the South African official languages are represented as first languages. It is thus important to investigate how multilingualism impacts on the transfer of discourse practices from the workplace to the academic context. Bourdieu, Passeron, and de Saint Martin (1994:8) state that ‘Academic language is a dead language for the great majority of French people, and is no one’s mother tongue, not even that of children of the cultivated classes’. In terms of academic discourse, being a first language speaker of English does not necessarily mean that you are better off than those who may be multilingual, or those who speak English as a second or additional language. Other research shows that the challenges faced by non-mother-tongue speakers of English in South Africa are not unique. For example, Francis and Hallam (2000, quoted in Tardy, 2006) carried out a small-scale study of first language graduate students and suggested that the difficulties experienced in reading and comprehending new academic genres were primarily due to a lack of previous exposure and familiarity. However, multilingual, or EAL, students have more difficulty than first language speakers. To build on this point, Turner (2004:107) observes that ‘in the context of performance in academic discourse, I am arguing that language form, as well as language as used in a particular theoretical discourse, are equally important.’ Her research emphasises the need to move beyond language proficiency and focus on content knowledge in EAP courses.

Although this research does not focus on the relationship between language proficiency or multilingualism and the postgraduate proposal genre, it is worth mentioning that an academic literacies framework foregrounds the connection between genre and discourse, among ‘other (social) issues’ (Ivanic, 1998:37). In other words, language proficiency is one of the concerns of academic literacies. Hence, in the following section I describe some of the challenges in, and the acquisition of generic undergraduate academic discourse. Later on, I discuss some of the similarities and differences between generic undergraduate academic discourse and Advanced Academic Literacy (AAL)³/postgraduate academic literacies.

2.1.4 Challenges in the acquisition of undergraduate academic literacies

Although this study focuses on postgraduates, I first discuss research that has been done at the undergraduate level for several reasons. Firstly, there are similarities between undergraduate and postgraduate academic discourses. Secondly, historically, in SA and elsewhere, more attention has been paid to first-year/undergraduate students. Thirdly, even at the undergraduate level, there are challenges in addressing the academic literacies of students. Therefore, it is useful to compare the two and later focus on postgraduate academic literacies.

In my research, it has been striking to find that postgraduate students experience many of the same difficulties as undergraduate students with some of the linguistic aspects of academic discourse, such as writing paragraphs, sentences, and introductions, which are normally taught in undergraduate courses. Most universities in South Africa offer first-year courses, alongside other interventions which go by various nomenclatures, for example, foundation courses, academic literacies, English communication, language in the faculties, English for Academic Purposes and so on. The content for these modules is similar in that they address concerns about academic writing, such as the need to cite, avoiding plagiarism, nominalisation, and voice. Notably, academic writing challenges have been a concern over the past decades among first-year students. Bartholomae (1985:4-5) captured this notion of acquiring the language of the new community in his

³ The term ‘Advanced Academic Literacy’ (AAL) has been used to describe the writing done by Masters and Doctoral students.

oft-quoted article, 'Inventing the University'. As he puts it, 'the students have to appropriate (or be appropriated by) a specialized discourse, and they have to do this as though they were members of the academy, or historians or anthropologists or economists; they have to invent the university by assembling and mimicking its language...They must learn to speak our language'. Critics of mimicry and so-called 'vulgar pragmatism', for example Pennycook (1997) and Benesch (2001), have identified the weaknesses of this assertion. Moreover, postgraduate students are not only expected to mimic ways of writing and knowledge production; they are also expected to contribute to knowledge. Among others, the academic literacies framework is an alternative to Bartholomae's view.

Other approaches have tended to view students' writing as a problem of interlanguage or a result of 'culture shock'. Neville (1996:40) argues that many university students experience 'a literacy culture shock' on discovering that their literacy is inappropriate for the culture which they are entering. Similarly, Kutz (1998) refers to students' writing as 'interlanguage' because of the differences between the target language (academic discourse) and what students are able to write. She argues that when students enter the university they are being asked to 'shift the style' to academic discourse and not to replace their own language.

Factors that influence access to academic discourse include identities, prior discourses, 'interim literacies' (McKenna, 2004; Boughey, 2005, 2008; Paxton, 2006). Some scholars express the tensions between the identities that students bring into the university context and the new identities that they have to perform. For example, McKenna (2004) argues that identity plays a role in the manner in which students adopt academic literacy. She argues that when individuals take on a literacy, such as an academic literacy or workplace literacy, they are investing in the identity constructed by that literacy and that such investment changes over time and space, dependent on conditions of power and compatibility between the target literacy practices and the individual's current multiple identities (McKenna, 2004:273). Similarly, Boughey (2002, 2005, 2008) criticises labels such as English as an additional language (EAL) as inadequate to describe student problems. She states that the discourses about language, such as language as an instrument of communication, and English as an additional language are insufficient. She situates her work within NLS, specifically writing as a

social practice, and argues for epistemological access in the academic development programmes for ‘foundation students’ (Boughey, 2005:240-241). To illustrate writing as a social practice, Boughey (2008:194) describes how students draw on other contexts, which may be ‘appropriate’ and ‘inappropriate’ in the context of the university when writing. Likewise, Paxton (2006) describes how an intertextual analysis of first year Economics student writing, accompanied by interviews, provides evidence of the ways in which students build on prior discourses to acquire new discourses; what she names ‘interim literacies’.

Research on academic literacies of undergraduate students has followed different approaches, e.g study skills, academic socialisation, and social practice (c.f. Chapter 1 on academic literacies research). South Africa is facing challenges of increasing access to participation in higher education as a result of redressing the legacy of apartheid, and the changes in higher education, discussed in the first chapter. Some academics blame students’ challenges with writing on poor schooling and the fact that English is their additional or second language. However, as will be shown in this study, writing challenges are a result of more than a lack of English grammar skills. This is a broader issue of language as a social practice. A study that has influenced my research is that of Hoadley-Maidment (1997), who investigates the acquisition of academic writing skills by mature students in an open-learning context in the UK and concludes that the text-based nature of distance learning is unique, and affects the way writing skills are acquired, as well as the development of identity. My research is based on broader views of what students bring along (e.g text practices, values, identities), in that it explores issues of language, and professional identity within an ODL South African institution, using a linguistic and intertextual analysis. There is a growing body of literature that focuses on postgraduate ‘advanced academic literacies’, which will be referred to in the following discussion.

2.1.5 Challenges of postgraduate academic literacies: A growing field in academic literacies

In the past, less attention was paid to the writing of postgraduate students. It was assumed by supervisors that postgraduate students were already able to write, and access to postgraduate education was for a limited segment of the population pre-1994 in SA. Several scholars comment on the absence of the literature on research writing, for

example Lee and Aitchison (2009), and Kamler and Thomson (2006). Pare, Starke-Meyerring and McAlpine (quoted in Lee and Aitchison, 2009: 90) observe that apart from one-to-one work with their supervisors, doctoral students in many disciplines are left to learn the conventional ways of writing and speaking in their research communities by observation, and trial and error, and, as they demonstrate, supervisors are often poorly equipped to address students' needs. What sets apart postgraduate academic literacies is that most postgraduate students are mature, they work fulltime and they tend to study part time. Unisa is one of the options for postgraduate students, since it does not require full time studying. In undergraduate academic literacies courses, there are large classes, and formal courses that have been taught for decades, whereas in postgraduate academic literacies courses the pedagogy relies mainly on one-to-one supervision. Moreover, postgraduate students are expected to contribute to knowledge, and the focus therefore shifts to research and knowledge production. As will be discussed in this research, other challenges have to do with the transitions that students experience between the workplace and the university, and also the fact that due to years of being in the workplace, some students have forgotten undergraduate academic literacies conventions, such as referencing, as well as how to avoid plagiarism.

Postgraduate writing is unique from undergraduate writing, according to Kamler and Thomson (2006), Cadman (2002), and Aitchison and Lee (2006). In my study, postgraduate reading and writing is equated with research writing, following Aitchison and Lee's (2006) account of the relationship between research and writing:

Research student writers, preoccupied with the complexity of the writing process, are often concerned simultaneously with the major questions of thinking, learning, knowing, engaging, positioning, becoming and writing that constitute their extended experience of research degree candidature and their transaction with the thesis text. For students, the problems of knowledge production, text production and self formation are complexly intertwined at the point of articulation. Data analysis, principles of selection and focus, structuring of the text, the performance and defense of an argument – are all questions of writing, (Aitchison & Lee, 2006:268).

Similarly, Kamler and Thomson (2006:11) describe research as writing and writing as research; 'right from the time we begin to think about the research questions we are

interested in pursuing, we begin to write.’ This implies that the process of research teaching and learning is about writing as well. However, supervisors often assume that postgraduate students can already read and write at an appropriate level or neglect the teaching of writing until after data collection and refer to notions of ‘writing-up’. Kamler and Thomson (2006) discuss how doctoral students go through a process of learning a scholarly identity through personal and institutional contexts.

Postgraduate academic literacies research conducted in South Africa has been done by, among others, Stacey and Granville (2009), and Leibowitz (2004). Leibowitz (2004) reports on the experiences of both undergraduate and postgraduate University of the Western Cape students in their efforts to become academically literate. She argues that students’ literacy backgrounds inform their academic writing and that attention should be given to factors such as race, geography and gender. Stacey and Granville (2009) illustrate how postgraduate students can be initiated into the academic community, or in other words, ‘Advanced Academic Literacy’.

Studies have been conducted on the impact of cultural background on academic writing, especially that of non-native speakers of English or non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB), for example Wang and Li (2008), and Casanave and Li (2009). In most cases, these studies have followed contrasting rhetorical approaches which describe the differences found in the L1 and the target language (in this case English). Some Asian students have confirmed the differences they experience when studying the Anglo-American/Western genres of academic writing and rhetorical conventions. Woodward-Kron (2007) provides a discourse analytic account of one writing consultation between a faculty-based language adviser and a Master of Public Health NESB postgraduate student. The findings show that the adviser scaffolded the student’s academic writing and learning in a number of ways, such as using consultation between the researcher and the student, and that more research in different teaching contexts is still needed. Some studies on non-native/L2 graduate students focus more on the research genre (Dong, 1998; Cheng, 2006). The findings point to a need to teach the research genres to graduate students, such as academic criticism, genre conventions, and providing helping networks, and support from the disciplinary discourse communities.

One of the sub-questions in my research is on instruction or mediation of postgraduate academic literacies in an ODL context. Beckenkotter and Huckin (1995:143) describe

the forms of legitimate peripheral participation in which a first-year doctoral student engages. Legitimate peripheral participation is based on the idea of apprenticeship learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Initially, the students' writing was seen as acts of identity, indicating allegiance to former groups. Beckenkotter and Huckin's study describe the rather unorthodox processes through which one writer began to achieve a mastery of the conventions and conversation for literate communication within a specific disciplinary framework (Beckenkotter & Huckin, 1995:143).

As mentioned in the introduction, the first section of this chapter focused on the academic context; the second section discusses the police professional context. Since I am interested in the relationship between university and workplace discourses, I turn to the police context below. This is an area where not much research has been done on discourses, and this is where I make a contribution. I therefore draw on international studies and professional discourses in general. Firstly, I focus on the police workplace context and describe the organisational background of the MTech Policing students.

2.2 The police in South Africa: Organisational changes and education

The role of the police in South Africa has always been deeply political, both during the apartheid era and in the present democratic dispensation. For instance, during apartheid, the police were an organ of the state and were used as a paramilitary force to enforce apartheid legislation. Since the advent of democracy in 1994, there have been constant shifts between the police as a force and the police as a 'service', with the former seemingly more enduring and in conflict with the 'service' (political) aspirations of the organisation. This has kept the police under constant public scrutiny and media criticisms, as discussed below. In my research, it is important to describe the police workplace context, as it is the workplace of police postgraduate students and therefore relevant to the theory on professional discourse community outlined below. Later on, I borrow a model of the intersection between the professional, workplace, and university (PWU) contexts, in order to analyse discourses. The use of the terms professional and professionalism covers three broad areas, both in the literature and in my dissertation. These are: the police culture or subculture, police professionalism as law enforcement officials, and the pursuit of university education, or professional qualifications through higher degrees.

2.2.1 The transformation from apartheid policing to policing in the democratic dispensation

In 1990, when Nelson Mandela was released, there were eleven police forces. Rauch (2000) states that the largest was the South African Police (SAP)⁴, with approximately 112 000 members; the remaining forces were based in the so-called apartheid 'homelands'. The homeland police forces were created in the 1970s and 1980s to police black communities. Steinberg (2008:94) says that pre-1976, the police imposed fear on black communities, demanding passes⁵ and bribes. He observes that post-1976, there was a demand for a different form of policing, as residents in these communities became confrontational and even killed some of the police. He goes on to say that by the late 1980s, the police were considered as a force of destruction, responsible for social tensions and animosities. 'It is seldom noted that the meaning of police had a long history under white rule, and that its reputation was at its most vile only moments before it was asked to step forward and police a new democratic society' (Steinberg, 2008:94). Research on police reforms echoes these sentiments. For example, 'the job of the police under apartheid was to enforce laws of racial segregation, to secure the minority government, and to protect the white population from crime and political disruption' (Rauch, 2000:5).

After the democratic elections in 1994, the new government began to implement new legislation to reform the organisation, for example the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security (Department of Safety and Security [DSS], 1998). According to the White Paper, policing in South Africa was traditionally highly centralised, para-military and authoritarian (DSS, 1998). In the foreword to the White Paper, the then minister emphasised that, 'at the heart of the White Paper lies the challenge of enhancing the transformation of the police so that they are able to function effectively within the new democracy; and enhancing social crime prevention activities to reduce the occurrence of crime.' The paper outlined the policy changes needed at government level to enable the police to function within a democratic dispensation, for example, 'the demilitarisation of the rank structure of the new police service and the appointment of skilled civilians into key positions in this service' (DSS, 1998:4). Post-1994, the focus

⁴ The name SAP subsequently changed to the South African Police Service (SAPS) after the first democratic election in 1994.

⁵ The apartheid government enforced a system of carrying identity documents known as 'passes' based on racial discrimination.

shifted to service delivery and community policing, in the belief that a partnership between the police and communities was essential for effective service delivery. During the transition to democracy, what ‘the new police agency envisaged was one that would be apolitical, guided by the transitional and final constitution, by respect for human rights and a deeper relationship with the communities they served’ (Faull & Rose, 2012:5).

However, a different approach to these reforms was taken after the second elections in 1999. Rauch (2000) observes that the new Minister of Safety and Security, Steve Tshwete, emphasised the crime-fighting role of the police. Subsequent changes were observed through a militarisation of the police, with an introduction of military ranks and doing away with civilian ranks. At present, there are still ongoing debates in the media on the use of force by the police, the role of politicians and the leadership of SAPS in influencing the behaviour of the police, for example, the South African Press Association (2011) reported that the Minister in the Presidency, Trevor Manuel, called for the ‘de-militarisation’ of the police. ‘A vision document published by Minister Manuel’s department, called for the reversal of recent trends in militarisation and force, saying that they should instead be replaced by “professionalism”’ (Faull & Rose, 2012:9). Munusamy (2013) painted a bleak picture of political interference in running the organisation, of a lack of respect for human rights and a lack of proper training, quoting the catastrophic death of miners at Marikana and other similar incidents of police brutality. Thirty-four miners were brutally shot by SAPS members in an illegal protest on 16 August, 2012, at a mine called Marikana in the North West province. This incident has been the subject of intense political debate, including a presidential commission of enquiry into the matter, the report of which is still pending. Similarly, Berning and Masiloane (2011) provide an interesting overview of the differences between a paramilitary and a civilian style of policing. For example, paramilitary policing relies on force, while civilian policing predominantly values community policing. They refer to media coverage, political leadership of the police, and the effects of the ‘shoot to kill’ or ‘shoot first and ask questions later’ policies.

2.2.2 International studies on police culture and the clash of knowledges

Police culture and education forms part of the debate on university qualifications. Becher and Trowler (2001:22) use the term ‘cultures’ to refer to sets of taken-for-

granted values, attitudes and ways of behaving, which are articulated through, and reinforced by, recurrent practices among a group of people in a given context. An Australian study described police culture as lacking progressive or scientific views on crime-related social problems, compared to other professionals working in the same areas in Australia (Prenzler, 1997:50). Another discourse analysis study represents the culture through discourses of police status, conformity and internal pressure (Frewin & Tuffin, 1998). Similar studies are yet to be conducted in the South African context. Studies on police training have tended to focus on resistance to training programmes within the police culture (Adlam, 1999, 2002). However, studies on police culture are inconclusive. For example, Chan (1996) reviews the concept of police culture and its utility for analysing the impact of police reform. Chan (1996:131) asserts that police literature has tended to lump values, beliefs, attitudes, informal rules, practices, etc. together under the label of police culture.

Very little research has been done on the experiences of police professionals returning to do postgraduate studies. The challenge is the lack of competent police researchers, and the absence of a vigorous professional academic association of police researchers to provide a forum for exchange of ideas and to develop appropriate leverages for using their research to influence police practice in South Africa (Alemika, 2009:499). One South African study of literacies and policing is Arend's (2005) study, which investigates the disconnect between 'insider' and 'outsider' literacy practices in a police station on the Cape Flats in Cape Town. He refers to this as a 'disorder of discourses' (Arend, 2005:102). According to Arend, although 'outsiders' could read and write, this knowledge was inappropriate in 'the broader discursive context of completing crime record dockets'. Arend attributes this difference to literacy practices that are recontextualised differently in different police stations. The significance of Arend's observation is partly to show how practices may vary locally. This underlines the point made earlier on Section 2.1.2, that discourse communities are not homogenous.

My research study intends to critique and build on Adlam's (1999, 2002) explanation for what I describe as 'discourse clashes.' As mentioned in Chapter One, my research was motivated by Adlam's (1999, 2002) action research on the training of police leaders and managers at Bramshill, at the National Police Leadership Faculty in the UK. The failure of the programme named 'Ethics Education' led to a search for explanations. Adlam observed that 'a part of the power struggle appeared to be connected with a clash

of knowledges. On the one hand, police had ‘practical knowledge’; on the other, the tutorial staff had ‘theoretical knowledge’ (2002:18). Adlam uses a Foucauldian analysis of the police leadership organisation. Adlam’s (2002) research into the governmental rationalities in police leadership suggests that ‘in addition to an economic rationality, police leadership manifests ‘socio-political professional’, ‘moral-panic’, ‘critical-emancipatory’, ‘socio-biological elitist’ and ‘post-modern image-management’ rationalities’ (Adlam 2002:32).

However, he singles out the socio-biological elitist rationality as the most prominent. Adlam (2002:27) argues that the ‘socio-biological elitist rationality draws its energy from the idea that small numbers of people are simply ‘wired-up’ as a result of biological heritage, ‘breeding’, cleverness and mental adroitness, to be rulers and leaders.’ Adlam (1999) indicated the disconnect between police occupational culture and academia. As part of the genesis of educational failure, the author uses the following terms to characterise the moral ethos of police organisations: ‘Thoughtful Self-regulation’, ‘Oppression and Coercion’, ‘Secretive Scheming’, ‘Strictly Rule-bound’, ‘Combat Arena’, ‘Rigid Command’, ‘Dialogue Seeking’ and ‘Symbiotic Relationship’. Adlam’s (1999) study of an unsuccessful police training programme illustrates how professionals struggled to practice academic literacies, such as critical reflection, because of the disconnect between professional and academic practices. Similarly, White (2006) outlines how the police occupational culture is shaped by a socio-biological elitist rationality. This is evident in the rank hierarchy profiles (professional ranks or position of ascending seniority from the lowest to the most senior) of the police organisations and how power can be used to make the lower ranks subjects and not able to voice their opinions. White (2006) examines the philosophical principles underlining police training in England and Wales. He concludes that police training uses a framework of behavioral competences as a measure of quality in the preparation of probationer officers. This is a mechanism that permits the service to reinforce the tendency to command and control, rather than enabling an open questioning of its intrinsic value to society and the context of a set of values that should guide it. Adlam’s notion of a clash of knowledges in British police education is a concept that I build on, as I develop a framework for the study.

2.2.3 Policing as a profession

It will be useful for this study to first define what the literature describes as a profession. Hoyle and John (1995, quoted in Watts, 2009:687) identify a number of features of professions, including the possession and use of expert or specialist knowledge, the exercise of autonomous thought and judgment, and responsibility to clients and wider society through a voluntary commitment to a set of principles. Beck and Young (2005:188), by drawing on Friedson (2001) among others, outline some of the characteristics of professions, i.e. autonomy over their conditions of professional training, certification of professional competence, and conditions of work and practice. Such professions defined the boundaries of their own knowledge base and institutionalised them in professional schools. Professions then developed and implemented a code of ethics, through which individual professionals could be held to account by the profession itself. As they observe, ‘professional training typically involved more than the imparting of specialist expertise; it also involved intensive socialization into the values of a professional community and its standards of professional integrity, judgment, and loyalty – in other words, the creation of a professional habitus’ (Beck & Young, 2005:188).

In the literature, there is an ongoing debate on whether policing is a profession or not. This debate usually takes place in the context of police culture and sub-culture. The notion of professional education has featured a lot in debates on police training and university education, for example Trofymowych (2007). According to Smit (1981, quoted in POL302-R⁶), some of the characteristics of police culture are ‘professionalism’ and ‘conflict’. He observes that professionalism is seen in the many departmental orders, procedures and instructions that are designed to regulate the police. Although his description was based on apartheid policing, it is still relevant in contemporary policing in South Africa. Smit (1981, quoted in POL302-R) describes the three main characteristics as ‘total institution’, paramilitary bureaucracy and an organisation aspiring to be professional, in other words, ‘semi-professional’. The military character is typified by police weapons and uniform, and the protection of citizens and provision of national security. Smit (1981, quoted in POL302-R) says that bureaucratic language, such as ‘command’, ‘control’ and ‘discipline’ is part of the

⁶ This is a 1981 study guide for Police Science, POL302-R, belonging to Unisa

military character. The subcultural indicators of the police are: the existence of an occupational ideology, occupational anomie, isolation, danger, over-sensitivity to criticism, secretiveness, group solidarity, cohesion, the uniform and arms, and the peculiar occupational language or jargon, (POL302-R:204). These features influence the values, and practices of the MTech Policing students, as will be illustrated in Chapter Four. Faull and Rose (2012:1) conducted an overview of police professionalism in the SAPS after the first democratic elections in 1994. They suggested that professionalism should be understood ‘as the expectation that police officials perform their duties in accordance with fair, accountable and just guidelines.’ However, this is still an ongoing effort within SAPS.

In one of the subjects offered to undergraduate students by Unisa’s Department of Police Practice, there are ongoing debates about whether the police are professionals or not (PRF2602)⁷. In this particular study guide, it is mentioned that there is no consensus on some of the elements that make up a profession. When these elements are applied to the policing context, it becomes controversial. For example, the first element is an organised body of theoretical knowledge. This organised body of theoretical knowledge does not exist; each policing agency defines what is relevant in its particular context. The second element relates to undertaking advanced studies. A police official can carry out his/her duties after a short period of training, unlike lawyers and doctors. The third element is that of a universal code of ethics. In South Africa, the police have their own code of ethics, which reflects the dynamics of the country; there may be commonalities with other countries, but there is no universal code. The fourth element is a professional association. The police do not have an association that registers and regulates the practice of members. These four elements indicate that it is debatable whether policing can be equated to professions such as engineering and nursing. The debate on whether policing is a profession or not is often shifted to refer to professionalism or professionalisation. There seems to be more consensus on the need for professionalism, as indicated by the recent calls for demilitarisation and for training (Faull & Rose, 2012; Munusamy, 2013). ‘Professionalism reflects more the attitude of the person, than the

⁷ Introduction to Professionalism in Policing, a study guide for undergraduate students doing the National Diploma in Policing.

status of the person, as it is a commitment to carry out one's work with determination as best as possible' (PRF2602:65).

The call made by then Minister in the Presidency, Trevor Manuel, to professionalise the police is not unique to South Africa. In Australia, Trofymowych (2007:430) observes that 'there is still no clear definition of police professionalism' and that 'at the very least police can be seen to hold "professional type" positions which require skills in problem solving and decision making'. In subsequent discussions, it will be illustrated that the police service is characterised as semi-professional, and that there is a strong political will within the SAPS to professionalise the police (Faull & Rose, 2012). Studies in international police research have also sought to compare the police to other professions, such as nursing and teaching, for example White (2006) and Adlam (2002). Adlam (2002) describes this as a 'socio-political professional rationality'.

In the next section, I discuss the participation of mature police students in higher education. In order to describe the debates around what constitutes a profession within the university context, I explore some of the studies on professional degrees.

2.2.4 Professional degrees and the transition across professional discourse communities

Moves to professionalise the police have taken place against the backdrop of professional degrees. On the international scene, there is growing interest in professional doctorates (Bourner, Bowden & Lang, 2001; Maxwell & Shanahan, 2001; Yam, 2005; San Miguel & Nelson, 2007). Some of the characteristics of the professional doctorate appear similar to the MTech degree. Firstly, the professional doctorate seeks to 'address the career needs of practising professionals, particularly those in, or who aspire to, senior positions within their profession,' (Bourner et al., 2001:70). These are not students who intend to become academics. Secondly, there is a 'high value placed on generating practice-based knowledge to address "real-world" problems' (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007:73). Thirdly, what sets apart these professional doctorates are work-based research problems, rather than gaps in knowledge or research arrived at through a preliminary review (Bourner et al., 2001:72). Bourner et al. (2001) discuss twenty ways in which the professional doctorate differs from the traditional PhD in England. Research has also been conducted by Lee and Boud (2008) on the professional doctorate, which is a blend of the professional, the workplace and the university, as

explained below. More attention has been paid to professional doctorates than to professional masters, according to Anderson, Day and McLaughlin (2008). The authors examined the experiences of dissertation research and writing on taught Masters degrees among mature professionals studying part time.

South Africa has not experienced a similar growth in professional doctorates; however, the MBA, and the Masters in Public Health, are similar to professional degrees. The MTech degree is also similar because of its history as a vocational, professional degree offered in the former Technikon South Africa (TSA). I expand on this discussion in Chapter Four. What is of interest in my research and for this discussion is exploring the textual expectations at the intersection of workplace, profession, and academic because they remain vague, (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007:73 & Lee, et al. 2000). It is useful to revisit the concept of discourse community, with a focus on the ‘professional’.

Professional discourse communities can be viewed as distinct from academic discourse communities. Various studies on discourses have described professional discourse communities. For example, Sarangi and Roberts (1999:15) suggest that ‘what the professionals routinely do as a way of accomplishing their duties and responsibilities can be called professional discourse.’ According to Johns (1997:54), discourse communities can also be professional because every major profession has its organisation, its practices, its textual conventions, and its genres. Furthermore, members carry on informal exchanges through Facebook, twitter, blogging, memos, emails, in laboratories, and so on. These exchanges are interwoven intertextually into public and published texts. Johns (1997:55) argues that the public and published texts are written, and that they form the bases of research analysis. Professional discourses have been documented by researchers in different contexts, for example academic professional texts (Lea & Stierer, 2009) and professional business or the corporate sector (Bhatia, 2008; Lentz, 2013). One of the findings in a Master’s research report about MBA students’ experiences of academic writing in one South African university was that writing within the business professional and academic discourse communities differs in terms of genre and purpose, among other things (Coning, 2010:100). Lillis and Curry (2006), although investigating professional academic writing by multilingual scholars, illustrate the nature and extent of literacy brokering in English-medium publications, and characterise and exemplify brokers’ different orientations. Therefore, professional discourse communities refers to both professional academics and professional business

people or the corporate sector. In my research, I use the term ‘professional’ to describe some of the characteristics of the police, which resemble other professions, as illustrated in Chapter Four.

Postgraduate students, such as those in my study, can be viewed as professionals who are transitioning to higher education (c.f. Chapter 1). Pare and Le Maistre (2006) investigate the transition from university to work in social work education. Evans (1995:24) argues that ‘the task is to blend the requirements of the degree with the needs or requirements of the workplace. The advantages in terms of relating research, theory and practice together are substantial.’ However, the transition from work to university has been characterised by challenges of status transition. For example, Watts (2009:690) argues that ‘the supervisor is required to gently “bring down” the students from their professional pedestal, as a process of status “deconstruction”, in order that they can progress as a researcher.’ Watts (2009:689) reveals that the ‘theory construct’ associated with pursuing postgraduate research implies ‘a threat to the student’s professional knowledge and status from the academic community, the very community that they are striving to join. The student is thus left in the swampy ground between the comfort of their professional realm and the uncertain territory of academia.’

It has been revealed in the previous section that the status of being a professional is not completely accepted for the police, in addition, professional degrees present unique academic literacies challenges for students who are transitioning from the workplace. This brings me to how knowledge contributes to the challenges of being a member of different discourse communities; that is, academic and professional.

2.3 The question of knowledge in discourses

In the preceding discussion it was mentioned that some studies on police education have alluded to a ‘clash of knowledges’ (Adlam, 1999, 2002). In a study that examines literacy in academic and workplace contexts at the University of Technology (UTS) in Sydney Australia, Dovey (2008) explores the chain effect of the ‘new knowledge economy’ on the purposes of newly vocationalised courses, on assessment tasks, and on the forms of learning and literacy required. She specifically looks at the notions of purpose, specificity and transferability in relation to new workplace practices and the ‘new vocationalism’ (Dovey, 2008:387). Dovey (2008:388) defines new vocationalism

as a shift in both higher education and the workplace to develop courses to prepare students for contemporary workplaces in very specific ways. Interestingly, the ‘new vocationalism’ is associated with Mode 2 knowledge (as opposed to Mode 1 knowledge) and with the spread of professional courses. According to the Mode 1 proposition, knowledge is produced and tested in the academy by research, whereas Mode 2 knowledge is created and tested by practitioners outside of the academy (Gibbons et al., 1994) (this is explained in detail below). UTS offers courses that are geared towards professional and workplace goals, rather than disciplinary goals. Dovey (2008:394) observes that there are ‘problems’ in the assignments that focus on workplace and university purposes because ‘they elicit hybrid text types, in the sense that the writing “grafts together” the instrumental purposes of workplace performance and/or writing, and the (inevitably) pedagogical purposes of academic writing.’ Such studies, for example Dovey (2008) have focused on a unidirectional view of transfer post-qualification and back to the industry. My study examines the relationship between the two contexts, even before the students obtain their qualifications because it focuses on students, who are both working and studying concurrently.

There is a body of literature which has begun to investigate the challenges of the transition from being a professional to being a postgraduate student, especially with regard to knowledge and research writing (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007; Watts 2009). In the following subsections, I discuss how knowledge has been described in curriculum studies, such as those of the professional doctorate, and then argue for the inclusion of knowledge in discourse studies of this nature.

2.3.1 The relationship between postgraduate academic discourse and knowledge

There is a growing interest in the relationship between writing and knowledge (Northedge, 2003; Starke-Meyerring & Pare, 2011; Franken, 2013; Jacobs, 2014). Starke-Meyerring and Pare (2011) observe that in America, rhetoric and writing studies include questions of disciplinarity, knowledge, and epistemology. While my research is not primarily concerned with knowledge, it does become important in analysing academic and professional discourses. In my research, I am interested in how aspects of knowledge influence the writing and discourse practices of MTech students. I concur with Franken (2013:1) that it is important to explore ‘what they (students) bring to the community and learning context in terms of prior knowledge and expertise, what they

personally find challenging in knowledge terms, and how they respond to the challenges.’ Studies of postgraduate writing have investigated the knowledge transitions between communities, and, presently there has been a growing interest in the role of knowledge in academic literacies. My interest is in the implications of knowledge for academic literacies.

There are different ways and views of conceptualising knowledge. For example, research on the sociology of knowledge in curriculum studies has focused on ‘forms of knowledge’ (Muller, 2009; Shay, 2013). By borrowing from Bernstein, Muller (2009:2016) maps forms of knowledge to curricula by distinguishing between conceptual coherence and contextual coherence. In brief, conceptual coherence has a hierarchy of abstraction and conceptual difficulty, while contextual coherence curricula are segmentally connected, where each segment is adequate to a context, sufficient to a purpose. Muller (2009) maps disciplines on a continuum representing types of knowledges, ranging from practical knowledge to theoretical progression of the discipline as the two extremes. Following Muller (2009), Bangeni (2012) uses concepts that foreground knowledge in her research on the writing of postgraduate genres and on the effect of disciplinary discourse practices, especially among students who are transitioning from one discipline to another. Bangeni (2012:4-5) asserts that professional disciplines, such as law and marketing, lean heavily on contextual knowledge by putting emphasis on the application of theory and practical experience. Bangeni’s study is an exploration of the transitions students make from one form of knowledge (humanities) to other forms (law and marketing). Bangeni (2012) argues that these epistemological differences become apparent in how students in different disciplines come to view knowledge.

Tolhurst (2007, quoted in Bangeni, 2012:21) observe that:

Students in applied disciplines are more likely to view knowledge as absolute, handed down by authority and unchanging. This is seen to be in direct contrast to how students from soft pure fields view it in their valuing of multiple sources and diverse opinions.

These studies have tended to place more emphasis on disciplinarity (Becher & Trowler, 2001), or on forms of knowledge in the curriculum, (Muller, 2009). In analysing the contextual data in Chapter Four, I borrow concepts of disciplines from Becher and

Trowler (2001). In describing knowledge and discipline variation, Becher and Trowler (2001:36) use the following four classifications: ‘hard-pure’, ‘soft-pure’, ‘hard-applied’, and ‘soft-applied’. This classification is useful in the sense that it describes the forms of knowledge under the four broad categories of pure sciences as ‘hard-pure’; humanities as ‘soft-pure’; technologies as ‘hard-applied’; and applied social sciences as ‘soft-applied’. The nature of knowledge that corresponds to disciplinary groupings is also described by Becher and Trowler (2001). For example, they observe that in the pure sciences, knowledge is cumulative and atomistic or tree-like; in the humanities, knowledge is reiterative and holistic or river-like; in the technologies, knowledge is purposive and pragmatic; and lastly, in the applied social sciences, it is functional and utilitarian.

My research aim differs from disciplinarity and curriculum studies by focusing on postgraduate academic literacies. I first elaborate on the PWU model which was essentially built on the Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types. Therefore, I draw on theories of knowledge, for example that of Gibbons et al. (1994) and of research writing (Lee, Green & Brennan, 2000), to describe some of the values and practices of academic writing in the Mtech degree, in building onto the theory of discourse as a social practice, foregrounded earlier on in this chapter. Similar studies on forms of knowledge in disciplines like nursing and social work education have analysed the professional doctorate, especially in England and Australia because of their practice-based disciplines (Yam, 2005; San Miguel & Nelson, 2007; Fenge, 2009). These studies are conceptualised on the Gibbons et al. (1994) model of knowledge and its contribution to the knowledge economy, described below:

Table 2.1: Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge

Mode 1 knowledge	Mode 2 knowledge
Knowledge produced and tested in the academy by researchers	Knowledge created and tested by practitioners outside the academy
Disciplinary	Transdisciplinary
Knowing through contemplation	Knowing through action
Knowledge for its own sake	Working knowledge
Knowing that	Knowing how
Knower as spectator	Knower as agent

Propositional knowledge	Knowledge as reflection on practice
Theoretical knowledge	Practical knowledge
Knowledge about the world	Knowledge in the world

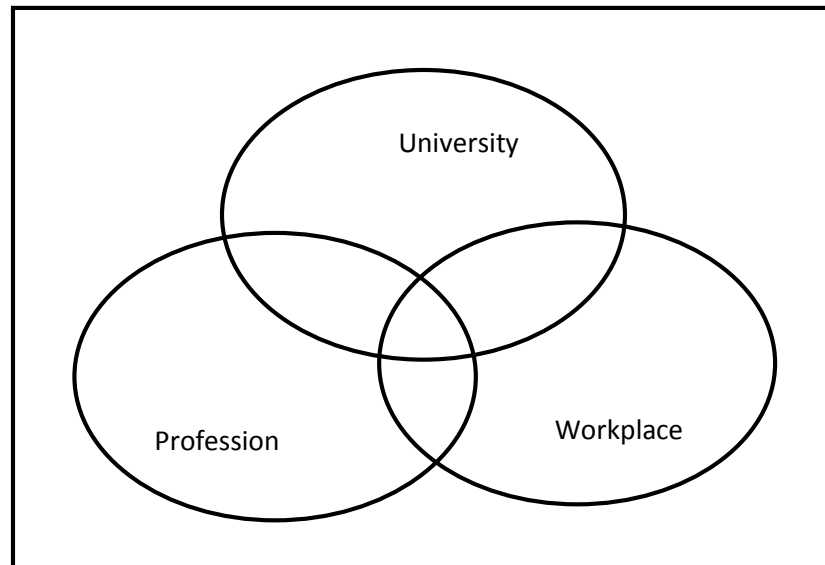
Gibbons, et al. (1994), reproduced from Yam (2005:568).

The table above outlines the characteristics of Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types. For example, in clarifying the importance of context of application, the authors argue that in Mode 1, ‘the context is defined in relation to the cognitive and social norms that govern basic research or academic science’ (Gibbons, et al. 1994:4). However, in Mode 2, knowledge is intended to be useful to someone, whether in industry, government, or society. In addition, Mode 2 knowledge is produced in the context of application, transdisciplinarity, heterogeneity and organisational diversity, social accountability and reflexivity, and quality control. The authors assert that this is essential, because scientific and technological knowledge production is no longer the preserve of universities, but is also pursued in industry and government laboratories, in think-tanks, research institutions and consultancies, etc. (Gibbons et al., 1994:11). By extending the Mode 1 and Mode 2 approach of knowledge production, Barnett (2000) describes working knowledge as ‘knowledge in action’, or in the world (Mode 2) knowledge.

As mentioned above, Mode 1 and 2 knowledge has been described as part of the evolution of the professional doctorate. Lee et al. (2000) outlined the evolution of the professional doctorate in Australia and England, as opposed to the traditional PhD doctorate. According to Lee et al. (2000:119), the ‘professional doctorate’ is meant for ‘professionals with formal research skills, along with specific understandings and dispositions, undertaking advanced research in the specific context of their workplaces.’ They state that this arose out of the Australian government’s policy of encouraging vocational education and that the professional doctorate was more suited to professions, such as engineering, accounting, law, education and nursing.

The professional doctorate, which is largely influenced by Mode 2 knowledge, consists of what has been described as a hybrid curriculum, which intersects in the three-way model outlined below:

Figure 2.1: The PWU hybrid curriculum



Adapted from, Lee et al. (2000:127) The hybrid curriculum of the professional doctorate

Lee et al. (2000) use the model above to account for the intersections between the university and the organisation, in which a research project will be undertaken. Of note, they predict that this kind of intersection results in ‘new relationships among participants and new kinds of research writing’. In their observation, ‘we imagine, indeed, a three-way model, where the university, the candidate’s profession and the particular work-site of the research meet and intersect in specific and local ways, in the context of a specific organisation’ Lee et al. (2000:127). It is precisely this interaction/intersection that my research seeks to explore between the three circles, represented by the three contexts: profession, workplace, and university (PWU).

Lee et al. (2000:127) go on to argue that:

At issue in such explorations, crucially, are interanimating questions of professional practice, organizational dynamics and new kinds of textual practices. We explicitly conceptualise the latter as ‘research literacies’ and see them, in the context of professional doctorates, as including academic literacies, professional literacies and workplace literacies, in complex interaction.

While Lee et al. (2000) were primarily interested in the curriculum at the doctorate level, my research is based on discourses (as defined above) at the MTech level. I use the model descriptively in relation to the three contexts and use CDA for explanations.

Although I borrow the model from Lee et al. (2000), I find challenges in distinguishing between professional literacies and workplace literacies. (I explained the already anticipated complexity with identifying professional ‘practices’ among the police in Section 2.2.3 above). It appears that there are limited studies which have attempted to investigate the so-called ‘textual practices’. The PWU model has been used elsewhere, for example by San Miguel and Nelson (2007) on nursing postgraduate academic writing. The PWU hybrid curriculum model anchors Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types.

2.3.2 International research on Mode 1 and 2 knowledge and the hybrid (PWU) curriculum

As mentioned above, (c.f. 2.2.4), reference is made to Yam (2005), and San Miguel and Nelson (2007) who examine professional doctoral degrees in nursing. They state that these degrees are more practice orientated and that they are typically Mode 2 levels of knowledge. The research problem in such studies arises from the context of work; students must have experience in the nursing field, as opposed to research that is driven by ‘gap-in-knowledge’ (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007). Yam (2005) argues that professional doctorates, as opposed to the traditional PhD, are better suited to solve practice-based problems in nursing and to enable nurses to conduct research.

To illustrate the professional context as the site of knowledge clashes, tensions or discourse clashes, Griffiths (2004) investigates the nexus between research and teaching and knowledge production by using the built environment to explore this. When referring to supervising research and writing research, Griffiths (2004:16) makes the following statement, which resonates with the focus of my research:

There is a tension, if not necessarily a clash, between those elements in the curriculum that are concerned with ‘research-facing’ forms of investigative activity, and those concerned with more ‘practice-facing’ forms of inquiry. The dissertation is one of the sites where such tensions can come to the surface. Final year dissertations are common, if not universal, features of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in the built environment field.

My study investigates the tensions and discourse clashes that have been observed in the writing of research proposals by MTech Policing students.

In a large-scale quantitative study that conceptualised professional doctorates in Australia and New Zealand, Maxwell (2003) and Maxwell and Shanahan (2001) use the PWU conceptual framework to describe the curricula of these degrees. Some of Maxwell and Shanahan's (2001) research questions were: what affiliations exist with professional associations or professionals more generally? And, is there a clear linkage between the doctoral work and the workplace site? To illustrate the context relationship between the university, the workplace and the profession, Lee et al. (2000) are cited by Maxwell (2003). Maxwell (2003) adapts the PWU model and adds an outer layer, named context. He describes the context as social, political and economic. He uses the PWU diagram to illustrate how the university in some cases draws from both the profession and the workplace. Maxwell (2003:286) argues that:

The hybrid curriculum does not privilege academic knowledge over knowledge produced and held by the profession. The model is useful too in that it points to the centrality of the workplace, i.e. the realities of the people and human relationships there.

He gives an example of the education profession, where the workplace is supposedly the environment in which the educator is placed, e.g a school, a training centre, or a skills development entity, and the university is the University of Western Sydney. In order to characterise the Educational Doctorate (EdD), Maxwell argues that the site for the EdD is the intersection between PWU and argues that the key notion is the distinction between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types. The model places Mode 2 knowledge at the centre or heart of learning. Interestingly, Maxwell (2003) acknowledges that the issue of research literacies is at the heart of Lee et al.'s (2000) model, but that research into this has not yet been done. This will be a useful model to use in the research into MTech Policing academic and professional discourses.

Maxwell (2003:286) further argues that the professional sphere in the EdD includes improvement, collegiality, and ethical behaviour. In some cases, professional degrees include a course entitled 'Professional Practice'. Maxwell (2003) states that professional doctorates show that they are at the centre of the PWU model, with some showing more inclination towards Mode 2 knowledge from the workplace, some even getting co-supervisors from the workplace. For Maxwell (2003), Lee et al.'s (2000) conceptualisation of the hybrid curriculum takes it for granted that PWU contexts are always separate entities. Perhaps the reason is that they applied the model to professions

that were easy to delineate, such as engineering, education, and business. However, this poses a complex issue for my research, where policing as a profession has been contested (see Section 2.2.3, above). For example, Maxwell (2003:290) observes that ‘the realities of the workplace, the knowledge and the improvement of the profession and the rigour of the university are being brought together in new relationships’ when referring to what he describes as ‘second generation’ of professional doctorates in Australia.

There have been mixed reactions to Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types in the restructuring of higher education in South Africa. Jansen (2002) describes resistance to Mode 2 knowledge at one South African university. He argues that ‘unless there is a radical shift in the complex of institutional arrangements that govern and underpin mode 1 knowledge production, then there is little chance that advocates of ‘mode 2’ will witness the kinds of changes anticipated by Gibbons and his colleagues’ (Jansen, 2002:519). However, Winberg (2006) is more optimistic about the relevance of Mode 2 knowledge in the range of contexts of higher education, transdisciplinarity and postgraduate studies. She notes that due to reconstruction and development in the South African context, ‘new undergraduate programmes are emerging, which are the result of the integrated work of academics, housed in different disciplines, and representatives of institutions outside of the academic context – workplaces, state and private research laboratories, local and national governments, and communities’ (Winberg, 2006:162).

I find some strengths and weaknesses in using Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types with the PWU model. For example, the model is able to distinguish between practical knowledge and theoretical knowledge, by locating Mode 1 knowledge in the university and Mode 2 knowledge in the workplace and professional circles, all things being equal. However, it does not address the intersection, or what is commonly shared in the three levels (PWU) and therefore may not enable me to address the research writing, or 'research literacies'. Moreover, in terms of the PWU, it may be that what is described as 'practice' actually resides in both the professional and workplace contexts, or at the intersection of the two circles. I find the model unable to expose the exact convergences and divergences of professional and workplace knowledges. In order for this to happen, I need a theory of discourse and ethnographic investigation to supplement the model that relates to professional work-based qualifications.

In this research, I focus on discourses which include knowledge, social languages and genre. Therefore, I will draw from the theories of knowledge mentioned above, for example Gibbons (1994), but combine these with discourses as social practice lenses. The Foucauldian definitions of discourse do imply a connection with knowledge. In the words of Pennycook (1994:127), 'importantly, then, to the extent that discourses are organizations of knowledge, and are always linked to power, embedded in social institutions, and produce ways of understanding, they are akin to the concept of ideology.'

The model of a hybrid curriculum (PWU) resonates with my discussion on hybridity below because of hybrid knowledges, such as practical and theoretical, or conceptual and contextual and transitions between discourse communities and contexts.

2.4 When professionals become postgraduate students

This research focuses on police postgraduate students who are shuttling between academic and professional discourse communities in a bid to participate in higher education. Due to the intersection of the three contexts; PWU mentioned above, which results in the hybrid curriculum, and impacts on knowledge and the possible tensions and discourse clashes in academic literacies, I focus on hybridity and genre below.

2.4.1 Hybridity in academic discourse

Hybridity is a term that has been widely used in studies of academic writing. A key early definition that has influenced writers comes from Bakhtin (1981:358), in describing the novel. Bakhtin (1981:358-359) describes hybridisation as ‘a mixture of two social languages within the limits of a single utterance, an encounter, within the arena of an utterance, between two different linguistic consciousnesses, separated from one another by an epoch, by social differentiation or by some other factor.’ The notion of mixing is key, whether of social languages, genres, or styles. In the context of teaching English for Specific Purposes and of genre studies, Hyland (2002) associates hybridity with genre mixing. Hyland (2002:122-124) explores the relationships between genres. One relationship that he dwells on elaborately is that of genre mixing. He states that mixing of genres can sometimes blur distinctions as evident in the newer nomenclatures of genres, such as advertorial and infotainment. He calls for further research to reveal how genres evolve, and how disciplines and professions are organised and orchestrated through their systems of genres.

In contrast to these studies that tend to use the term hybridity descriptively to shed light on the evolution and categorisation of genres, some studies, for example, Canagarajah and Lee (2013) view hybridity as a *process* of merging one’s preferred discourses with established ones. Lee (co-author with Canagarajah) was interested in merging personal, narrative, and academic discourses in a journal article. They both were interested in making space for new hybrid genres in writing the journal article, but they encountered difficulties during the process. Canagarajah and Lee’s (2013) chapter is about the process, involving a mentorship, of Lee writing an article for TESOL Quarterly in a hybrid style and why the article was ultimately not published by Canagarajah as editor. Her article for TESOL Quarterly on race theory and ESL teaching merged different discourses, and as a result of its hybridity, it was not accepted for publication. The article was reworked as a book chapter in Thesen and Cooper (2013). Canagarajah and Lee (2013) delineate key elements of hybridity as a strategy. These elements are that it needs to be negotiated by all stakeholders, mentors and mentees, supervisors or gatekeepers; in the case of Lee and Canagarajah, it meant different things to each of them. Hybridity can also mean the loss of ‘voice’ from the author, something which Lee was not prepared to lose, (Canagarajah & Lee, 2013). They dismiss notions of hybridity as ‘identity’ (as Lee assumed) or ‘text’ (as Canagarajah and the reviewers assumed), but

rather draw on Bhabha's views: 'hybridization is a discursive, enunciatory, cultural, subjective process having to do with the struggle around authority, authorization, deauthorization, and revision of authority. It's a social process. It's not about persons of diverse cultural tastes and fashions' (Bhabha 1999:39, quoted in Canagarajah & Lee, 2013:94).

Bhabha's postcolonial interpretation of hybridity views it as a strategy for resistance and transformation. Similarly, Williams (2003:600), by drawing on Pratt's (1999) notion of 'contact zones', observes that 'it has frequently been used to describe an almost carnivalesque space, a benign melting-pot synthesis that emerges from parodies of the dominant culture and overt appropriation and reversal of colonized symbols.' She associates hybridity with resistance and conflict, and argues that 'the conflicts emerging in a hybrid discourse can just as often lead to aporia and incomprehension as they can to understanding and progress' (Williams, 2003:604). Hybridity has been widely used in American composition studies classes to argue for understanding what students bring along and the need for understanding power and resistance, for example Zamel (1997) and Williams (2003).

It is this delicate balance between hybridity as a postcolonial construct and the more formalistic approach, that a study of hybrid discourses has to navigate, especially in the context of literacy education, or straddling between discourse communities. In my research, hybridity is viewed as a strategy that helps me to understand the writing practices and professional identities of students' and to describe the divergences and convergences between professional and academic discourse communities. It also illuminates the understanding of discourse clashes, especially the recontextualisation strategies discussed in Chapter Six (e.g. agency and transformation). As mentioned by Canagarajah and Lee (2013:95), alternative discourses may be easier to negotiate in the context of postgraduate writing than in scholarly publications. Issues of power, and incomprehension are part of the stance I take with regard to hybridity. The other interpretation of hybridity that I use is Fairclough's (1992) analytical frame to analyse genre mixing, and interdiscursivity which are elements that are indicative of hybrid discourse and hybrid genres (c.f. Chapter 3). Zamel (1997:345) observes that 'what individuals do in and with language, either their own or another, is contingent on and embedded within specific situations [...] We may not consider and thus leave unexplored the range of factors that may be influencing our students' writing, factors

having to do with prior experiences, instructional context, or the very nature of writing.’ This underscores the fact that hybridity encompasses the contexts, the discourses, and the experiences of students. Since my research question is based on discourse, and my view of discourse is that discourse consists of practices that can be analysed in the proposal genre, I now shift to the central focus of the postgraduate proposal written by MTech Policing students.

2.4.2 The postgraduate proposal genre as social practice

The present study focuses on proposal writing in the MTech Policing degree, because a proposal is the initial ‘high stakes’ genre that students have to produce. In addition, the proposal forms part of the application for permission to conduct research for both the workplace and the university. It is increasingly used as a gatekeeping instrument in determining who should be included or excluded. A proposal is significant for investigating intertextual references and for describing some of the features of discourses that students bring along to the university, as it is the first document that students are expected to produce before being registered for the dissertation. Furthermore, other discourses operating within student writing are likely to be revealed at this stage.

Unisa’s Department of Police Practice’s Tutorial Letter 101 outlines its expectations of the structure of the proposal and provides a pro-forma and a checklist on things that should be included. Aspects of this signal the expectations in terms of genre for the proposal (See the discussion of Tutorial Letter 101 in Chapter Four).

Genre has been a key concept in EAP, ESP, academic literacies research and Writing Across the Curriculum (Russell et al., 2009). Genre is a concept that has been widely defined in the literature. For instance, Swales (1990:58) defines genres as ‘a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes.’ Hyland (2002:114) defines genres as abstract, socially recognised ways of using language. The proposal forms part of occluded genres, ‘cases where textual exemplars are not readily accessible to public and research scrutiny’ (Swales 1996, quoted in Allison, 2003:156). The postgraduate research proposals (such as a Masters or a PhD) can be classified as one of the genres of academic writing done by postgraduate students, alongside others like the theses, and the journal article. Some

studies, for example Cadman (1997), have focused on the writing of the thesis by exploring the relationship between writing and identity among international students.

Other studies have foregrounded the contested nature and gatekeeping function of a postgraduate proposal. Researchers in academic writing, for example Cadman (2002) and Allison (2003), have described tensions when postgraduate students write proposals for Masters and Doctoral studies, because the proposal is used as a selection instrument. According to Allison (2003:156), 'a rather special and relatively succinct instance of student research writings is the case of the higher degree research proposal...the proposal forms an important element in the eventual selection of doctoral research students, and hence future members of specialists academic research communities.' Allison (2003) alludes to the fact that students face an acute challenge when it comes to demonstrating in the proposal that they have a viable research project. Cadman (2002:89), too, asserts that 'it is a gatekeeping assessment tool used to confirm or deny the student's entry from a first or probationary phase, into a second phase of candidature.' Cadman (2002) conducted a survey of research supervisors by asking them to prioritise the particular features they expected to see in a successful 'research proposal'. She identified two functions of the research proposal. One is institutional/administrative and the other is academic, both operating at the level of context of situation, and context of culture. One of the objectives of her research was to determine the features of a successful proposal within her university by interviewing a total of 72 supervisors. Almost 60% rated the same academic features and/or purposes as extremely important, and she notes that 'these center on the document's reflection of a logically defined, feasible project expressed as research questions and/or objectives, as well as wide and critical reading which serves to justify the project, identification of contemporary issues in the field, and appropriate methodology or methods for fulfilling the research goals' (Cadman, 2002:88–90). Further qualitative data on project characteristics and text characteristics elucidate some of these features.

Another finding of Cadman's was that the text, the writer as 'persona' and the human/social subject were conflated (Cadman, 2002). This refers to the writer's subjectivity, in other words supervisors have a way of evaluating the persona through the text. This was revealed in comments such as 'the student must be able to show where his/her project sits within the broad picture of the subject and discipline', and 'this is a proposal from a student who's already established himself in this area in his home

country'. Cadman argues that this is challenging, because 'the research proposal as a piece of writing may be seen by its discourse community to require a certain kind of writer subjectivity in order to be considered a successful example of its genre'; in other words, a student with certain behavioural characteristics or personal attributes (Cadman, 2002:95).

Clark (2005) states that there are assumptions that Masters' students can already write, therefore they do not need further teaching when writing the proposal. This appears to be a common misconception of academics and many institutions, locally and globally. Clark (2005:143) argues that when writing proposals, 'the process requires the student to demonstrate familiarity with critical disciplinary issues; to problematize and focus a topic; and to fulfil genre expectations, not only in form and style but also in terms of rhetorical goals, authorial persona, and constructed audience.' Clark (2005) observes that many advisors and supervisors can attest to the fact that graduate students often are clueless when they begin the process of writing a proposal. Clark also states that professors do not articulate their expectations of how a proposal should look, because they assume students will know how to do it, and she warns that even if this genre is taught explicitly, students will not find it any easier to master. Allison (2003), whose research is based in Singapore, explores the crucial features of authority and accommodation, when postgraduate students write proposals in order to gain entry at a university in South East Asia. Though both concepts are complex, authority is related to the linguistic choices and their meanings, while accommodation is about both the purpose and audience of the text.

In my research, I use an academic literacies framework to explore and describe genre as a social practice. My investigation of genre is also influenced by theories of discourse as a social practice. Russell et al. (2009:405): assert that:

Issues of genre are central to the three models of student writing outlined above (skills, socialization, and academic literacies). Each of these models is implicitly associated with a different orientation to the notion of genre. In terms of study skills, genre would be conceptualised primarily in relation to surface features and form; academic socialization would be associated with the conceptualization of genre in terms of established disciplinary norms for communication, given primarily by the texts written by academics within a disciplinary community.

The empirically grounded academic literacies perspective is aligned with a view of genre as social practice rather than genre knowledge in terms of disciplinary communication per se, although this is by its very nature central to the social practice perspective.

Of note in the above description of genre is the association of genre with ‘social practice’, as defined above. This means genres and discourses are intertwined. This is why CDA, together with ethnographic framing, is able to uncover the epistemology and transformative practices of students’ genres. Practice is privileged over text in academic literacies research (Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Gardner, 2012). As mentioned by Cadman (2002:85), the proposal genre is a ‘contested site in postgraduate genre pedagogy’. Paxton (2013:149) describes some of the ‘tensions inherent in the genre of the scientific research proposal, and illustrate(s) the difficulties the students can face in trying to weave their experiences into what are perceived as the genre’s narrow constraints while positioning themselves effectively in the academic process.’ It is interesting for my research that Swales (2004, quoted in Paxton, 2013:150) states that defining genres may not be useful because of the accuracy of the definitions and because ‘the easy adoption of definitions can prevent us from seeing newly explored or newly emergent genres for what they are.’ It is worth mentioning that genre has not been consistently defined in the literature on academic literacies research. Wingate and Tribble (2012:488-489) assert that ‘to our knowledge, no systematic analysis of Genre/EAP has appeared in Academic Literacies publications.’ I do not fully agree with this view; I think that there may not be a uniform pedagogic approach on genre, due to the very nature of an academic literacies framework. Besides, there have been publications, for example Russell et al. (2009) which have explored the notion of genre in academic literacies. Academic literacies research does concern itself with different types of texts, student writing, multimodal texts, and practices such as giving feedback to students and assessment tasks. Academic literacies is multidisciplinary by nature and draws strongly on genre theory. I give an ‘operational’ definition of genre in Chapter Three, where I link genre to discourses.

In the context of ODL, more focus has been on the low throughput rates and supervision of postgraduate students, than on genre (Lessing & Schulze, 2002; Schulze, 2012). One study that focuses on Masters and Doctoral students’ writing investigated the possibility of using checklists to improve the success rates of proposal writing at the College of

Economic Management Sciences in Unisa, (Marx, 2011). My own work has looked at policing students and has explored students' reactions to feedback on academic writing (2010) and some of the intertextual strategies employed by students on the proposal (Ndlangamandla, 2012, & 2013).

As shown from the above discussion, the proposal performs various functions (academic and administrative), and is evaluated according to various criteria, (e.g writing identity or research identity). The proposal is a contested genre and a site for tensions and discourse clashes. My research seeks to describe and explore the interface between professional and academic discourses.

2.5 Conclusion

To reiterate the broad categories so far covered, this literature review started by describing discourse as a social practice. In other words, discourse is embedded within language, identity, practices, and other social issues. It is a view of this study that discourse communities are an important element of discourse, since I will be focussing on the police community and academic community. Similarly, multilingualism cannot be divorced from a focus on discourse. I discussed how multilingual postgraduate students face greater challenges than monolingual students. I then described academic discourses, both for undergraduate students and postgraduate students, in order to show how universities are responding to changes in student profiles and widening participation in tertiary education.

Furthermore, I described the police in SA and cited some international research. The study is based on postgraduate students who are from the police workplace. Some scholars have noted the uniqueness of police culture and the clash of knowledges when police pursue tertiary education. Research on students who are transitioning from professional discourse communities suggests tensions in research writing for many disciplines, not only for the police.

Lastly, I explored the transitions and hybridities often noted between the academic and workplace discourse communities. I borrowed a PWU conceptual/contextual model to make sense of the intersections and transitions from the workplace to the university. I draw on theories relating to Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge types and the PWU model to understand the intersection between the two discourse communities of policing (workplace and professional), and academia, in the current context of the way the MTech degree is offered at Unisa. This led my literature review to studies of professional doctorate degrees. Lee et al. (2000) provide a gap for research literacies within the PWU model. I concluded this chapter by explaining the gatekeeping function and the contested nature of the research proposal when using a writing as a social practice approach. In the following chapter, I discuss an ethnographic research methodology and analytical concepts drawn from writing as a social practice and CDA.

Chapter Three

Critical Discourse Analysis with Ethnographic Framing

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter Two, I discussed a model for exploring and describing the intersection of the three contexts: Professional/Workplace/University. It is a useful model for understanding that various linguistic and sociocultural factors interact within the three contexts. These factors influence proposal writing. I argued that the model would be useful in understanding the likely tensions and discourse clashes experienced by MTech Policing students in their proposal writing. The model is also helpful in exploring the transitions across the contexts. In this chapter, I present the research design and research methodology (Part One), and the research process (Part Two). The main research questions and sub-questions for this study are:

Main question

- 1) How do professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing graduate students intersect in the proposal?

Sub-questions

- 1) What are the discourse practices in the police professional context?
- 2) How are these discourse practices recontextualised in academic writing in the MTech proposals?
- 3) What are the writing-based practices and values in the MTech degree?
- 4) What are the textual histories of MTech proposals?
- 5) What are the implications of mediating proposal writing in an ODL context?

This research adopts a CDA with an ethnographic framing research design. I shall first define ethnography, and then focus on CDA.

3.1.1 Ethnographic framing of the research design (Part 1)

In the context of academic literacies research, this study adopts an ethnographic research design. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) and Hammersley (2006) observe that ethnography emphasises the importance of studying at first-hand what people do and say in particular contexts. In my research, I was interested in what police students and their supervisors say, and more broadly, in their discourse practices. Hammersley (2006:4) notes that this methodology originated from anthropology in the early twentieth century. In the anthropological sense:

Ethnography involved actually living in the communities of the people being studied, more or less round the clock, participating in their activities to one degree or another as well as interviewing them, collecting genealogies, drawing maps of the locale, collecting artefacts, and so on. Moreover, this fieldwork took place over a long period of time, at least a year and often several years.

Ethnography has been used by academic literacies researchers, ESP researchers and Discourse Studies, among others. Ramanathan and Atkinson (quoted in Hyland, 2006:65) observe that ‘ethnography is an approach to research which sets out to give a participant, or insider, an oriented description of individuals’ cultural practices’. I was an ‘outsider’, as opposed to ‘insider’, in the sense that I come from an external department to the Department of Police Practice at Unisa, and I explain below how I became a participant observer in the research.

Ethnography takes on different approaches, for example interpretative, classical, critical and auto-ethnography. Smart (2008:56) asserts that ‘interpretative ethnography in the Geertzian tradition is used to explore a particular social group’s discourse practices – as these are instantiated in writing, speaking, or other symbolic action – in order to learn how members of the group view and operate within their mutually constructed conceptual world.’ According to Atkinson and Hammersley (2007:3), ethnographers do the following in terms of data collection:

1. ‘People’s actions and accounts are studied in everyday contexts, rather than under conditions created by the researcher – such as in experimental setups or

in highly structured interview situations. In other words, research takes place ‘in the field’.

2. Data are gathered from a range of sources, including documentary evidence of various kinds, but participant observation and/or relatively informal conversations are usually the main source.
3. Data collection is, for the most part, relatively ‘unstructured’, in two senses. First, it does not involve following through a fixed and detailed research design specified at the start. Second, the categories that are used for interpreting what people say or do are not built into the data collection process through the use of observation schedules or questionnaires. Instead, they are generated out of the process of data analysis.
4. The focus is usually on a few cases, generally fairly small-scale, perhaps a single setting or group of people. This is to facilitate in-depth study.
5. The analysis of data involves interpretation of the meanings, functions, and consequences of human actions and institutional practices, and how these are implicated in local, and perhaps also wider, contexts. What are produced, for the most part, are verbal descriptions, explanations, and theories; quantification and statistical analysis play a subordinate role at most.’

The first three points are particularly relevant, as will be shown in the following subsections. Firstly, I conducted the research in people’s workplace contexts, and at times even in participants’ private homes. Secondly, there were several methods of collecting data, (c.f. Section 3.5.2 below), and lastly, the instruments of data collection were refined during the research process and the analysis did not follow predetermined categories.

In my research, I did not adopt a classical ethnographic approach of staying in the field for at least a year. I conducted what has variously been referred to as limited ethnography, or an ethnographic perspective (Street, 2010) or an ethnographically-sensitive approach (Odeniyi, forthcoming), or not doing a full ethnography Green & Bloome (1997, quoted in Street, 2010:204). I draw on three ethnographic methods of data collection. These are participant observations, fieldnotes and semi-structured interviews. The data collection took place over two years (2010 and 2011), and was informed by my long-term involvement with the academic Department of Police

Practice that started over eight years ago. Atkinson and Hammersley (2007:4) observe that 'where participant observation is involved, the researcher must find some role in the field being studied' by implicitly or explicitly negotiating with people in the field. In the case of interviews 'relations will have to be established, and identities constructed' (Atkinson & Hammersley, 2007:4). According to Atkinson and Hammersley (2007:8) 'As participant observers we can learn the culture or subculture of the people we are studying. We can come to interpret the world more or less in the same way that they do.' My prolonged involvement with the department influenced both the participant observation and the interviews. The participant observation was through mainly attending an annual one-week 'research proposal' workshop, administered by supervisors to the MTech students. In Chapter Four, I elaborate on this facet of ethnographic framing. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:131) argue that there are distinct advantages in combining participant observation with interviews; 'the data from each can be used to illuminate the other.'

There are pros and cons in using or relying on interviews in ethnographic research. Hammersley (2006:9) acknowledges the heavy criticism, stating that:

(In) recent times an increasing amount of work, self labelled as ethnographic or as qualitative, has relied very heavily, or even entirely, on interviews. And this has stimulated questions about whether such work can be called ethnographic, and even more importantly about whether it is methodologically sound.

In relation to ethnography, Hammersley (2006:8) observes that the debates range from those who argue that ethnography should be primarily based on participant observation, thereby rejecting interview data, to those who claim that what is essential is capturing participant perspectives, or even giving voice to the people studied, and that interviews are arguably best suited to gauge this. On the other hand, there are more radical criticisms of interviews mentioned by Hammersley, by those who argue that interviews make 'questionable inferences from what is said in particular interview contexts to events, attitudes and/or behaviour beyond those contexts (Hammersley, 2006:9)'. He further defends interviews by explaining that 'what informants say in interview contexts is always socio-discursively constructed in a context-sensitive fashion, and indeed that it is only through such local processes of social construction that informants are themselves constituted, or positioned, as having particular identities' (Hammersley,

2006:9). In my research, interviews are used together with other methods, such as observation, and discourse analysis.

Despite the criticisms, interviews continue to be widely used in ethnography. The types of questions and the manner of conducting interviews are important. The questions during the interviews are said to be closer to conversations in character than survey questions (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995:152). Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:154) argue that interviews are by no means non-directive, for example ‘often one may wish to test hypotheses arising from the developing analysis and here quite directive and specific questions can be required.’ Furthermore, they explain that ethnographers use reflexive questions. Ethnographers come to an interview with a list of issues and do not repeat the same questions exactly the same way to each interviewee; instead, ‘they adopt a more flexible approach, allowing the discussion to flow in a way that seems natural’ (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995:152). During my interviews, I observed such protocols for non-directive and reflexive interviews, coupled with a reflective approach.

On the use and importance of fieldnotes, Blommaert and Jie (2010:37) state that they are similar to a diary and that they have a function in which they ‘tell a story about an epistemic process’. Blommaert and Jie (2010) used fieldnotes for various purposes, for example to make new information understandable when using their interpretative frames, concepts and categories, and gradually shifting into new frames, making connections between earlier and current events. I recorded fieldnotes during the research process, and while collecting data in the field. They proved useful when I was trying to navigate the data collection and data analysis process.

3.1.2 The principle of reflexivity

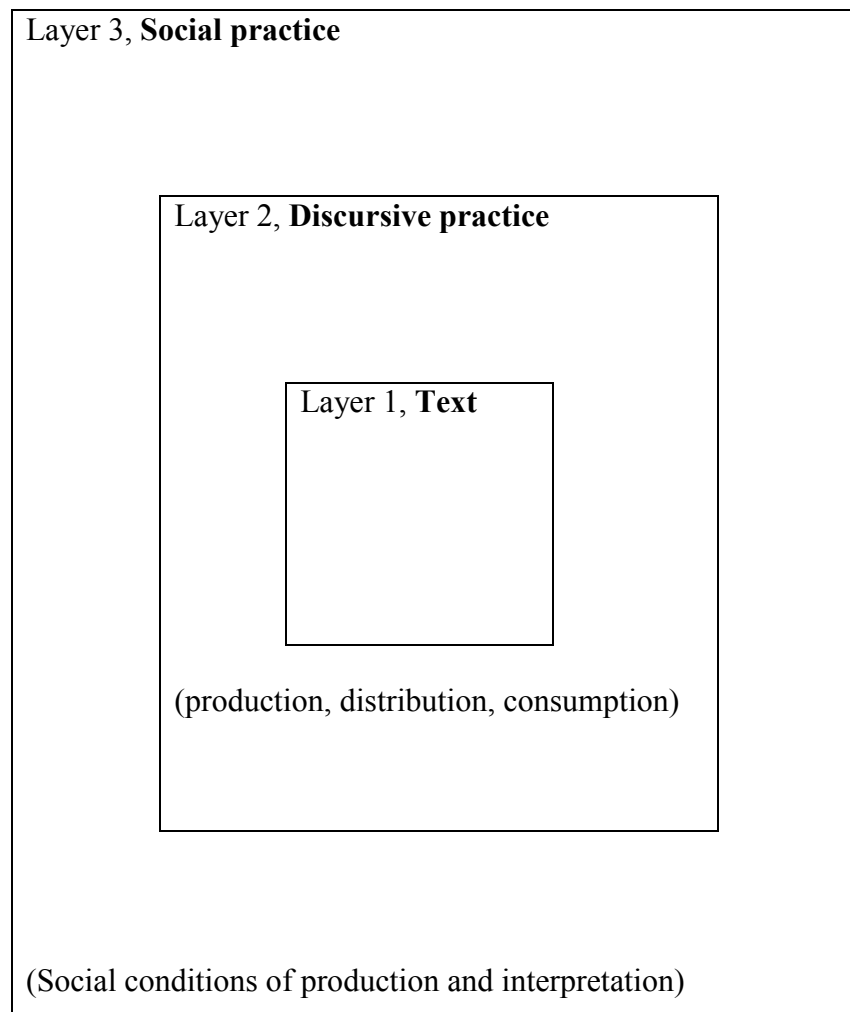
Reflexivity is one principle that ethnographers employ. Reflexivity is identified as a significant feature of social research. Atkinson and Hammersley (2007:15) argue that ‘there is a sense in which all social research takes the form of participant observation: it involves participating in the social world, in whatever role, and reflecting on the products of that participation.’ The two authors contend that ‘reflexivity thus implies that the orientations of researchers will be shaped by their socio-historical locations, including the values and interests that these locations confer upon them’ (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995:16). Throughout the data collection and analysis I reflect on my

professional competence as an applied linguist and also on my involvement with the students as a Writing Centre tutor. Reflexivity is infused into various stages of my research and it affects my own identity as a researcher, my pre-conceptions, and the unfolding process of knowledge production through research.

3.2 Critical discourse analysis

In this section, I discuss the theoretical framework used in this research for analysing written texts. Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999:16) view CDA as both a theory and method: ‘as a method for analyzing social practices with particular regard to their discourse moments’. The definitions of discourse in Chapter Two are based on a social practices approach, for example Fairclough (1989:20-27) defines discourse as ‘language as a social practice’. The Fairclough model has been used because it provides a method of exploring the social practices and discursive practices of the discourse being analysed. This is framed in Fairclough’s (1992:73) model of text construction and interpretation which has three levels: text, discursive practice and social practice (see diagram below). Text refers to the language, or verbal signs that we see as readers; discursive practice explores the immediate context of language, e.g. production, distribution and consumption. Fairclough describes the last layer as social practice; which involves taking into account institutions, social structures and ideologies. These affect the discursive practices. Fairclough argues that the relationship between discourse and social structure is dialectical. In explaining Fairclough’s model, Jorgensen & Phillips (2002:61) observe that it means discourse contributes to the shaping and reshaping of social structures and that discourse reflects the social structures. The following diagram shows the three layers:

Figure 3.1: The CDA model



Fairclough's (1992:73) Three-dimensional conception of discourse.

The diagram above portrays a three-dimensional model that will be used to analyse academic writing. It is a framework for the early version of CDA, developed by Fairclough (1989, 1992). Layer 1 signals the actual texts (both verbal and visual). Layer 2 represents the processes of producing the text by the writer and the processes of interpretation that lie with the reader or audience. In analysing the discursive practice, a discourse analyst is guided by the elements of context that are relevant in Layer 1. The actual analysis can take different forms, based on what analytical lenses are being applied, for example, systemic functional grammar and intertextual analysis (Flowerdew, 2008:195-210). The third layer is the macro-level influence that cuts across the other two layers and represents the sociocultural aspects, such as hegemony, orders of discourses, ideologies, and social structures that underpin texts. For instance, in

higher education, this is part of the culture of academic writing. It is what makes academic writing unique, such as the writing of essays, the use of sources, and genre-specific features of academic texts. This is also where clashes of institutional ideologies and textual practices are uncovered (Fairclough, 1992).

Although each of the circles or layers can be analysed separately, it is important to mention that they are intertwined and that the inner circle influences the next layer in an interdependent or bidirectional manner. Fairclough (1992:86) explains that:

Micro- and macro-analysis are therefore mutual requisites. It is because of their interrelationships that the dimension of discursive practice in my three-dimensional framework can mediate the relationship between the dimensions of social practice and text: it is the nature of the social practice that determines the macro-processes of discursive practice, and it is the micro-processes that shape the text.

Janks (1997:330) states that ‘the embedding of the boxes emphasizes the interdependence of these dimensions and the intricate moving backwards and forwards between the different types of analysis.’ She goes on to observe that ‘this three-dimensional image enables one to understand that an analytic move to examine a single box necessarily breaks the interdependence between the boxes and requires subsequent moves which re-insert that box into its interconnected place.’ She affirms that the decision to start at any box is arbitrary.

This three dimensional model attempts to describe why people write or speak the way that they do and indeed how language is used in particular contexts. It also helps us interrogate where meaning breaks down or is complicated. Researchers also use it to investigate power relations, conventions, hegemony and identities. In this study, this approach will inform both the theory and method for investigating the intersection of academic and professional discourses and practices.

3.2.1 The ‘critical’ in critical discourse analysis

CDA is ‘critical’ in the sense ‘that it aims to reveal the role of discursive practice in the maintenance of the social world, including those social relations that involve unequal relations of power’ (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002:63). Fjortoft (2012:74) observes that

‘CDA is about uncovering complexities, about looking into how ideologies operate in creating meaning and social realities. It should identify how dominating ideologies guide what can be said and what cannot be said in a given discursive event and how dominating ideologies, e.g. “the given social realities”, are challenged.’ He observes that the critical element can mean different aspects, such as to investigate the workings of power relations; to be self-reflexive; to seek social transformation; to work in an interdisciplinary way; to take an explicit stance; and so on. In my research, the ‘critical’ addresses the systematic relationship between genres, discourses, and texts/styles. The discursive practice analysis mediates between text analysis and social practice analysis. I straddle between multiple contexts (PWU), and two disciplines (language and education) to examine texts and institutional practices. Being critical also means following a descriptive tradition, as opposed to being prescriptive, or being normative within educational studies. It can also relate to Fairclough’s (1989) use of the concept ‘explanation’ in relation to description and interpretation. My research relates the students’ texts to sociocultural practices, and to institutional practices that often deny students access to academic discourse. I further explore this critical dimension below.

3.2.2 CDA and academic literacies research

Lillis and Scott (2007:7) observe that there are two dimensions to academic literacies. The first is the epistemological (relating to social practice) and the second is the ideological (meaning the transformative stance). CDA becomes a method that uncovers the social practices and ideological aspects in texts. Lillis and Scott (2007:12) observe that the shift away from texts to ‘academic literacies’ has helped to foreground many dimensions to student academic writing, such as ‘the impact of power relations on student writing; the contested nature of academic writing conventions; the centrality of identity and identification in academic writing, academic writing as ideologically inscribed knowledge construction, the nature of generic academic, as well as disciplinary specific, writing practices, and an interest in an archaeology of academic practices.’ Over the last decade, there has been a flurry of studies using a writing as a social practice approach, for example Lillis (2001), Kamler and Thomson (2006), Gunilla (2007), Rai and Lillis (2012). Kamler and Thomson (2006:20) argue that ‘referring to language use as discourse signals that using language is an action and that it is social rather than individual action. Further, language as social action cannot be

divorced from any other aspects of social life and social relations.’ They apply the CDA approach to doctoral research writing differently from how I apply it to MTech students’ academic writing. Kamler and Thomson (2006:19) use the model to conceptualise ‘the tensions and demands faced by doctoral writers and their supervisors.’ They find the model suitable for representing both the effects of broader social contexts on writing and the way writing itself is a form of social interaction, embedded in institutions and social structures (Kamler & Thomson, 2006:20).

Lillis (2001:36) explains the ‘discursive practices’ (second layer of the Fairclough model above) as ideological in the ways in which they serve to maintain existing social relations of power, in terms of social class, gender and race. She notes that: ‘In the context of higher education, there is a need to explore the ways in which the existing institutional discursive practices are ideologically motivated, by exploring, for example, the ways in which they serve to exclude and include individuals from particular social groups’ (Lillis, 2001:36). Lillis (2001:40) describes how essayist literacy as student writing indicates the relationship between literacy practices and knowledge-making practices, whilst situating both within a specific socio-historical tradition. She draws on the critical viewpoint to ‘argue that the conventions surrounding the production of student academic texts are ideologically inscribed in at least two powerful ways: by working towards the exclusion of students from social groups who have historically been excluded from the conservative-liberal project of HE in the UK and by regulating directly and indirectly what student-writers can mean, and who they can be’ (Lillis, 2001:40). CDA is usually associated with the critique of power or hegemony. Paxton (2006) argues that in her research, her interest is not in critiquing hegemonic texts in order to uncover hidden power relations and that her approach of using intertextual analysis is to uncover emerging meanings from first year economics students’ writing. In my research, hegemonic aspects will be explained in the functions and purposes of the proposal; in other words, social practice analysis.

3.2.3 Ethnographic-based discourse analysis

Smart (2008:60) argues that ethnographic-based discourse analysis provides an effective way of examining intellectual collaboration within an academic or professional community. Blommaert (2005:66-67) declares that for a convincing investigation of context, there has to be consideration of ‘how the linguistic generates

the economic, social, political, as well as how the economic, social, and political generate the linguistic.’ He argues that the ethnographic origin and situatedness of data are hardly treated in CDA alone (Blommaert, 2005:64). Blommaert (2005:25) observes that ‘CDA focuses its critique on the intersection of language/discourse/speech and social structure,’ and that CDA uncovers ways in which social structure relates to discourse patterns. Blommaert critiques the narrow view of CDA, which he feels does not take context seriously enough. He argues that analysing social dimensions should have an impact on society, for example by ‘empowering the powerless, giving voices to the voiceless and exposing power abuse’ (Blommaert, 2005:25).

Lillis (2008) describes three approaches of ethnographic research as method, methodology and ‘deep theorizing’. Her work is based on understanding the relationship between text and context among student writers and professional writers. Lillis (2008) concurs with an ethnographic methodology as defined by, for example Hammersley (2006), and Atkinson and Hammersley (2007); however she only emphasises the ‘lengthy or sustained engagement in participants’ academic worlds, and the collection and analysis of a range of types of data in order to build holistic understandings’ (Lillis, 2008:362). Lillis borrows from Geertz to distinguish between the ‘emic’ and the ‘etic’. Emic refers to the insider perspective, whilst etic refers to the outsider/researcher perspective. These are angles and lenses that are explored in this research through the students’ voices and supervisors’ views. This follows New Literacy’s research methods in academic literacies, as explicated by Lillis (2008). In my research, the ‘talk around text’ (c.f. Chapter 1) supplemented the intertextual and linguistic analysis of students’ proposals, as well as interviews with the supervisors. As mentioned below, it also included participant observation in workshops, and my long association with the department. Prior (2004, quoted in Lillis, 2008:367) states that ‘the richest histories will emerge from multiple methods, with intertextual analysis, participant accounts, and observation of activity working together to produce a fuller portrait of the process.’ Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) support the combination of CDA and ethnography and argue that this strengthens both. Recently a special journal issue of *Critical Discourse Studies* highlighted the merging and complementarity of ethnography and CDA (Krzyzanowski, 2011). Krzyzanowski (2011:236) argues that ‘ethnography is increasingly indispensable for broadly understood contextualization while CDA is

necessary for the critical analysis of discourses produced and/or received in the studies of social and political, everyday and institutional contexts.’

3.2.4 Criticism of critical discourse analysis

Notable critics of CDA include Hammersley (1997) and Jones (2007). Hammersley (1997) criticises CDA for being unclear about its philosophical foundations, and for lacking an adequately developed sociological theory. Hammersley (1997:244-245) observes that ‘the most damaging feature’ of CDA is ‘the extraordinary ambition of the task that it sets itself. It aims to achieve a very great deal more than other kinds of discourse analysis. Not only does it claim to offer an understanding of discursive processes, but also of society as a whole, of what is wrong with it, and of how it can and should be changed,’. Jones (2007:337) argues that ‘there is no such thing as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in the sense of a method of political or ideological critique based on the application of conventional linguistic constructs.’ Some of these negative criticisms are less relevant in this study, because of the combination of CDA with ethnographic framing. I do not feel that Jones (2007) respects critical linguistics as a discipline, for example Fowler and Kress (1979) or even Critical Language Awareness, (Fairclough, 1992; Janks, 2010). CDA has been criticised for attempting to establish a deterministic relationship between discourse and social structure, namely a correlation between social change and discourse. In my view, the criticisms are directed towards the ‘social structure’ i.e. sociological theory, or economic structure in some cases. There seem to be dissenting views about social changes, e.g. neoliberalism, politics, and so on, and the ‘dialectic’ relationship with discourse. In this research, I argue that CDA can contribute to academic literacies, and I use it in conjunction with ethnography.

3.3 The research process (Part 2)

Prior to my candidacy, I began by conducting a pilot study to illustrate the discourse clashes in one student’s writing. This analysis illustrated the type of intertextual analysis that was subsequently conducted on all the proposals. This process is delineated below:

3.3.1 Lessons learnt from the pilot

The pilot study was based on my pre-understanding and preconceptions of the police, in both the academic and workplace contexts, and my own pre-understanding and

assumptions of theory and practice (and not necessarily according to the Department of Police Practice), and generic understanding of a proposal from an applied linguistic background. The pilot analysis of data relied on CDA, and thematic/content analysis of the student's writing. This was necessary and influenced the design of the research methodology. I analysed the proposal of a student named Siphon; this analysis formed part of the research proposal prior to my PhD candidature. I identified three main issues in Siphon's proposal, which I later included in the data analysis in Chapters Five and Six. I summarise the analysis below.

The first issue identified in my analysis of Siphon's MTech proposal was that he seemed to have a perception that the aim of conducting research was to offer solutions to policing problems, rather than to uncover and build an understanding of research problems. This appeared to be caused by a conflation of his duties as a professional with his role as a postgraduate researcher and showed intertextually the predominance of the policing discourse over the academic discourse. The primary duty of the police is to investigate crimes and then gather evidence that can be used for prosecution and possible conviction. From this observation, I was influenced by my expectation that Siphon's research should resemble Mode 1 knowledge, that is the purpose of research as 'autonomous' (Gibbons, et al. 1994), rather than based on the workplace. This issue of 'the role or purpose of research' was factored into the interview questions for both the students and the supervisors.

The second issue my preliminary analysis suggested was that students are given subheadings as a way of guiding the structure of their proposal, but that they misinterpret the meanings of these. These guidelines are captured in Tutorial Letter 101, an essential document at Unisa for all students. Siphon misunderstood, or rather confused, the literature review and the methodology. He appeared to need assistance in understanding the purpose of both a literature review and the methodology. This finding later informed my observations and interviews. I tried to find out from Siphon if the students were aware of the distinction between a literature review and the methodology. In interviews with the supervisors, the discussion focused on the use of subheadings and writing of the literature reviews, as well as research methodology, especially with reference to the teaching of proposal writing within an ODL context. This issue was also central in the intertextual analysis of the proposals, outlined in Chapter Five.

The third issue that surfaced from the pilot study concerned the use of terminology. For example, the three theoretical concepts defined under Sipho's title of KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS were 'cluster', 'domestic violence', and 'domestic relationship'. These appeared to be concepts borrowed from the workplace and Sipho did not indicate how they were relevant to the study. Terms such as 'investigate' and 'service delivery' were common in his proposal; these appeared to me to result in discourse clashes when used in academic discourse. During the subsequent interviews, I explored whether these terms were borrowed from the police profession or whether they form part of academic discourse in the police discipline. An intertextual analysis of such terms reveals how policing concepts can be transferred to academic discourse. Interviews with students and supervisors conducted later in the study yielded more data on how the terms become recontextualised in academic discourse. The three issues outlined above illustrate the clash of discourses. All three issues indicate a mismatch between police workplace practice and academic discourse. I also drew on literature to inform my observations during the pilot study, for example Adlam (1999, 2002,) Fairclough (1992) and Lillis (2001), the latter with reference to writing as a social practice. This analysis later informed some of the data collection methods, for example I was able to develop my interview questions with the students and the supervisors. As a result of the pilot, I decided to collect data at the face-to-face workshop I was asked to participate in.

My pre-understanding of the MTech research proposal seems to have been at variance with the expectations of the supervisors during the pilot study. I tended to have normative views on the proposal, which were shaped by my background in applied linguistics, and by minimal ethnographic research at the time. I came into the research with strong views/opinions and judgements about what a proposal should be like, about the quality of writing, the students' command of the language, and the nature of research knowledge. As my research proceeded and illuminated certain findings, I had to refine these opinions and select analytical concepts for the study. This was also influenced partly by the preliminary analysis outlined below.

3.3.2 The preliminary analysis and the selection of the six students

As explained in the section on data collection below, I approached five supervisors of the MTech Policing students, with a request for students' proposals. All five supervisors were willing to send me, via email, copies of proposals. I specifically requested the supervisors to send me copies of proposals accepted between 2008 and 2010. I collected 20 proposals in total. On average, each proposal was 15 pages long, excluding the reference section.

My preliminary analysis of the proposals was guided by two focal points, the first of which concerned my main research question: How do professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing graduate students intersect in the proposal? Secondly, principles of discourse analysis were applied to academic writing. Initially, I found it daunting to compare the 20 proposals, looking for similarities and differences. I first thought that it would be possible to look at the macro features of the proposals, such as the headings, and structure of the proposal. The proposals, with a few exceptions, used the same subheadings. There were very few differences of sequencing, and the inclusion of a unique subheading was observed in only a limited number of proposals. This made me realise that there was not much that could be of significance based on the surface and macro features of the proposals. I then read the proposals more closely to identify what was peculiar to each proposal and what was relevant to my research aim. I was able to identify some of the issues and concerns that I had already identified in the pilot, but the large size of the sample and the length of the proposals prevented me from categorising and commenting on them.

I then examined the students' profiles, with the aim of selecting a smaller sample from the original 20 that I could focus on. Among the 20, one student was from Namibia, another from Botswana. I excluded these proposals, because I wanted to research the policing context in South Africa. In addition, conducting interviews with students who live outside South Africa would be difficult.

I also decided to also exclude four proposals belonging to students I had previously met through the Unisa Writing Centre. I felt that my intervention to improve their writing may have influenced the final drafts of their proposals. Other factors that resulted in the exclusion of proposals were:

- Proposals which fell outside the range 2008–2010.

- Proposals, whose title page giving students' details was not included. I decided to leave these out as well, fearing that at a later stage it would be difficult to contact these students.

After this preliminary screening, I chose 10 proposals on which to focus. During the initial reading of these 10 proposals, I found some of them fascinating and striking in terms of my research questions. Therefore, I could immediately start scribbling on them and making comments. This task was undertaken with a lot of uncertainty and hardship, because of the length of each proposal and my attempt to interpret sections within each of the 10 proposals. I numbered these proposals from 1 to 10 and drew up a table, guided by the subsections in each of the proposals which all contained the same headings, because of the predictable headings. This table is replicated below.

Table 3.2: Preliminary analysis

Proposal subsections	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Background and introduction										
Key theoretical concepts										
Problem statement										

Objectives of the study										
Literature review										
Value of the research										
Research methodology										

After this, I read the proposals and commented on them. Although some proposals yielded issues and problems that resonated with my research problem and research questions, there was still too much information for me to compare across proposals and to find similarities and differences. Some of the major points I noted as I was reading concerned the structure of the proposal, sequencing of the subsections, the content within each subheading, the genre, language and style. Below I give a summary of the findings of this preliminary analysis.

In the analysis of these 10 proposals, I observed many writing practices which answered my research questions. For instance, I did a preliminary textual analysis by comparing and contrasting sections of the proposals, such as the aims, the introduction, the problem statements, the key theoretical concepts, and the literature review. All the proposals were sequenced similarly; there were also patterns such as the use of ‘bullets’, borrowing from Tutorial Letter 101 (explained in Chapter 5), conversational style in parts of the proposal, the use of common discourse types, lack of coherence, the broad nature of the aims and objectives, which resembled SAPS strategic objectives, the key theoretical concepts, the literature review, genre mixing, mixing the first person and the third person, and so on. I felt that 10 proposals was too big for a detailed discourse analysis. I decided on which linguistic analytical concepts to use and reduced the number of proposals to 6, to enable a more detailed analysis. I then selected 6 proposals with the aim of finding similarities and differences amongst them and also coming up with interview questions for both the group of 6 students and the five supervisors.

3.4 Ethics and access

This is a complex ethical study, due to the ethnographic methods used, the context of ODL and the police context for research. The focus of this study was on proposals that had already been accepted by the Department of Police Practice at Unisa. As mentioned in Chapter 1, students then proceed to writing the actual dissertation. I obtained permission from the Unisa Department of Police Practice to do the research. At the time of collecting data, there was no uniform procedure at the level of the College of Law or Unisa for ethical clearance. I therefore met the Head of Department of Police Practice. Due to my long-term involvement with the department, dating back to the previous HOD, I was already familiar with most of the supervisors. The HOD was very cooperative and assured me that I would be provided with the various data sets that I needed. I also met each supervisor, and ‘negotiated access’. I relied on the supervisors to provide me with copies of proposals that had already been accepted and details of those students whom they were supervising. Permission was also sought from the MTech students to participate in the study (Consent forms are on Appendix F). Respondents were assured in writing and also verbally before taking part in the research that to the best of my ability, they would come to no harm. I explained to them what the research was about, how I would analyse the research and that the research would be made available in the university, and that all efforts to maintain confidentiality would be employed. Efforts were made to ensure that any negative psychological, medical or physical consequences as a result of participating in the study were removed.

International ethical principles, as outlined for example by Amdur (2002:23-31), were observed, for example ensuring the protection of participants’ informed consent in the research, privacy and confidentiality and the right to withdraw from research participation without penalty. These international ethical principles are in accordance with the guidelines for research involving human participants at Unisa, later made available in 2013 and 2014. I also ensured anonymity of students’ workplaces, texts and interviews, by giving pseudonyms. In most cases, I used categories, which were essential in the data analysis, such as race, gender, and professional rank. Confidentiality and anonymity was a major challenge, especially in the presentation of the participants. This includes the institution, the department and the respondents. I could not hide the name of the university or the department. These are key variables that

help answer the question; any attempt to make them anonymous would render the whole study insignificant. In as much as similar studies have been done on explicit professions such as nursing or social work, I felt I could not use pseudonyms for some key terms. However, there may be ethical dilemmas that may emanate from publishing some of the findings, or even misrepresentations of the research. This is why I reflect on some of my own methods and analysis. These ethical dilemmas are similar to those experienced by Coleman (2013) when investigating the academic literacies of an academic department at Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

I also adhered to the Guide to Research Ethics for the Faculty of Humanities and School of Education at the University of Cape Town and the South African Police Service research procedures. An example of a permission letter that was signed by each and every research participant is in Appendix G. Permission was obtained from the SAPS Gauteng provincial commissioner, who coordinates internal and external research. This was initially meant to involve visiting police stations in Gauteng, in order to collect workplace documents and observe workplace discourse practices. However, there was a slight adjustment to the research methodology after the pilot study. I then focused only on those police stations from where the students came.

I first had to contact the academic supervisors at Unisa in order to obtain students' contact details, as well as confirmation about their 'status' of studying and location. I then negotiated access via the phone and formal email communication with the students. I had to negotiate access from police officials in several provinces, namely North West, Gauteng, and Eastern Cape. There was only one unsuccessful case of trying to secure an appointment with a student, otherwise all the other students were available. In the unsuccessful case, the student was in the process of dropping out from the MTech Policing degree. It was unclear to the supervisor at the time whether the student was intending to proceed or not, because his proposal had already been accepted by the department.

Issues of ethics were raised during meetings with some of the students, and I outline specific procedures in the data analysis chapters. I realised that some requirements were unique, and pertained only to certain individuals in the study. For instance, the one respondent (Maggie) who was working at a mine insisted that the name of the mine should not appear in the research. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) explain that when

conducting ethnographic research, access is secured through gatekeepers, and may have to be renegotiated from time to time in the field. Having obtained permission from Unisa, the police and the students, I made my own travelling and accommodation arrangements to the various police stations. I kept my fieldnotes in a diary as I travelled to the various workplaces. These were handy in terms of ethnographic reflexivity.

3.4.1 Validity in ethnography and CDA

In an ethnographic study, validity is usually ensured through various measures such as triangulation, reflexivity, and respondents' validation. In my research, I did not carry out a respondents' validation. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:229) discuss the disadvantages of respondents' validation, citing that it may be in a person's interests to misinterpret or misrepresent his or her own actions, or to counter the interpretations of the ethnographer, and that it cannot be assumed that they (respondents) are privileged commentators (whose account is guaranteed) on their own actions. This was compensated for through the use of a number of methods of collecting data, namely triangulation and reflexivity.

One form of triangulation is the use in ethnography of a number of techniques of data collection. For example, it is possible to 'assess the validity of inferences between indicators and concepts by examining data relating to the same concept from participant observation, interviewing, and documents,' (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995:231). As mentioned above, data collection in my research involved participant observation, fieldnotes, interviews, and documents. For instance, if information gained in an interview with a student was not quite correct, I would be able to validate/ triangulate it through the semi-structured interviews with the supervisors, the CDA analysis of the proposals and through observation at the students' workshop. Wodak and Meyer (2009:31) describe additional criteria to validity that pertain to CDA. One criterion is completeness: 'the results of a study will be 'complete' if new data and the analysis of new linguistic devices reveal no new findings.' They observe that concepts like validity, reliability and objectivity used in quantitative research need to be modified in the context of CDA.

Altheide and Johnson (1994) conceive of validity as reflexive accounting. They connect this to what they call 'analytic realism'. Analytic realism is based on the view that the

social world is interpreted by the subjects we study and by the qualitative researcher (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:481):

This perspective assumes the researcher interprets the world, and this interpretative process rests on an ethnographic ethic. This ethic directs attention to the situated, relational, and textual structures of the ethnographic experience. Researchers are obliged to delineate clearly the interactions that have occurred among themselves, their methodologies, and the settings and actors studied.

As mentioned in several chapters of the dissertation, I reflect on my research methods, settings, actors, and analytical processes in order to ensure validity.

3.5 Research participants

The research participants were six postgraduate South African students from Eastern Cape, North West, and Gauteng provinces, studying an MTech degree at the Department of Police Practice in the College of Law at UNISA. There was a mixture of male and female, white, black African and Indian students, with varying lengths of experience as officers in the SAPS. Only the Indian student mentioned speaking English as a home language; the rest either spoke Afrikaans or Xhosa as their home language. Therefore, for the majority of the students, English was an additional language. In Chapter Five, I provide a detailed profile of the six students who participated in the research. I also interview five supervisors, whose details are briefly outlined below.

3.5.1 Supervisors' profiles

At the time of the research, the Department of Police Practice had about nine supervisors who specialised in supervising MTech Policing students. I conducted unstructured interviews with five of them. Two female and three male supervisors were interviewed. The three males were all ex-policemen, who began their careers by joining the SAPS soon after matriculating. Neither of the two female supervisors had a policing background. One had a teaching background and the other a social work background.

In terms of seniority, three of the supervisors were full professors and two were senior lecturers. The following table illustrates the participants' profiles:

Table 3.3: MTech supervisors

Supervisor	Gender	Previous experience	Position at University	Race
Villa	Female	Teaching	Professor	White
Monique	Female	Social work	Senior Lecturer	Black African/Coloured ⁸
Kgomotso	Male	Police	Senior Lecturer	Black
Menzi	Male	Police	Professor	Black
Themba	Male	Police	Professor	Black

Chapter Five contains a corresponding table for the students' profiles in the data analysis section.

3.5.2 Data collection

As mentioned above, the research methods consisted of CDA with ethnographic framing. Forms of data collection included the following:

(a) Students' writing samples

I collected 20 copies of proposals which had been accepted for the MTech degree between 2008 and 2010. The majority were still registered MTech Policing students during the years 2011 and 2012, with a few who graduated in subsequent years.

(b) Semi-structured interviews with the supervisors

I conducted semi-structured interviews with the supervisors of the students, which gave me insight into the supervisors' views, perceptions and practices of reading and writing within the MTech degree. According to Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:152), a key

⁸ Black African and coloured are some of the racial classifications that are used by StatsSA, however, some people resist such classifications because of the apartheid past.

distinction can be drawn between standardised and reflexive interviewing. I chose to call the set of issues to be discussed ‘interview prompts’ rather than questions (examples of the interview prompts are in Appendix B).

(c) Semi-structured interviews with the students

After the preliminary analysis of the proposals had been carried out, I visited some of the police stations where the students were located. Since Unisa students live and work in various parts of South Africa, I interviewed a selection of registered MTech students at their places of work, to learn more about their language and literacy practices. The provinces that were visited for data collection were the North West Province, Gauteng, and the Eastern Cape Province. The specific cities and towns where the six students came from are mentioned in Chapter Five.

I conducted interviews with the students about issues of reading and writing that related to my ‘preliminary’ analysis of their writing (c.f. Appendix C). This granted an opportunity to compare my interpretation with students’ views. I used an approach propagated by Lillis (2001, 2003, 2008) called ‘talkback’, in which students express their views and perceptions of what is important to them and the meanings they attach to their written texts. Lillis (2003:204) states that talkback is ‘an attempt to open up space where the student-writer can say what she likes and doesn’t like about her writing.’ The interviews enabled me to examine students’ attitudes towards writing practices at work and in the university. Lillis (2008:359) describes the ‘talk’ as centering on two dimensions, namely the text and the writer. As mentioned in Chapter One, Lillis’ own research leans more on the writer in that her talk-around-text ‘(a) encourages comment and reflections that go beyond writing within current dominant conventions and practices, and (b) recognizes that the participants’ analytical lens and perspectives are central to establishing what may be significant important in any specific context’ (Lillis, 2008:359). Lillis (2008: 361) argues that ‘talk around text aimed at seeking out emic perspectives is one important way of exploring what is or isn’t significant, from the large notion of context, to specific individuals in their sociohistorical writing trajectories.’ In underscoring the importance of students’ voices, Paxton (2012) observes that this academic literacies methodology enables students to interpret their own texts. Lillis (2008) also argues against stand-alone textual analysis. She says that stand-alone textual analysis does not reflect a social practice approach.

(d) Workshop observation

In following the principles of an ethnographic framing, I conducted participant observation of a week-long workshop. I wanted to gain a ‘quasi-thick description’. Geertz (1973, in Smart 2008:58) defines thick description in the following way: ‘a thick description is an account of the discursive system used by the members of a social group to construct a particular shared version of reality, a unique conceptual world.’ Although Unisa is an ODL institution, academic departments can organise non-compulsory face-to-face teaching/support programmes. About 20 students travelled to Pretoria for the workshop. An example of the workshop programme is included in Appendix D. I describe in detail in Chapter Four both the observation and facilitation of academic literacies that I carried out at the workshop in Pretoria.

3.6 Data analysis

I used an ethnographic and analytical framework to identify themes and patterns in the qualitative data. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:210) note that the initial stages of data analysis involve several readings of the corpus of data, looking for patterns, what stands out, or puzzles, how the data relates to prior expectations, and whether there are any inconsistencies among the views of different individuals. The patterns depend on one’s research focus and theoretical orientation. The process of analysis can also be based on the formulation of categories, concepts and indicators, in order to produce a description and/or explanation. However, they caution that ‘the relationship between concepts and indicators must be assessed, then, by considering alternative interpretations of the data, and by following through the implications of particular interpretations to see if these are confirmed’ (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995:227). I also conducted a linguistic analysis of the six proposals (An example of a typical MTech proposal has been attached in Appendix E). I used Fairclough’s (1992, 2003) three-dimensional model of discourse. The following is a description of some of the discourse analytic concepts used in the thesis. The following description of analytical concepts is based on Fairclough’s (1992) model of CDA, (c.f. figure 3.1). I draw on extra concepts, which help me in the analysis of the data. These are concepts that have been used by other academic literacies researchers.

3.6.1 Textual analysis

The three dimensional discourse model consists of three layers which are textual analysis, discursive analysis and sociocultural analysis. Fairclough's first layer is that of the description of the text. Fairclough (1992:75) asserts that text analysis can be organised under four main headings: 'vocabulary', 'grammar', 'cohesion', and 'text structure'. Style can be analysed across the three layers. In this instance, I combine it with cohesion. I add modality on the textual analysis.

(a) Modality

In the literature on systemic functional linguistics (SFL), Eggins (2004:178) argues that modality is used to describe the degree of certainty or of usuality in a proposition, 'when modality is used to argue about the probability or frequency of propositions, it is referred to as modalization, when modality is used to argue about the obligation or inclination of proposals, it is referred to as modulation.' Hyland (1994:239) states that 'academic writing is rich in hedged propositions, by allowing writers to express their uncertainty concerning the factuality of their statements or to indicate deference to their readers, epistemic devices are a significant characteristic of academic writing.'

(b) Vocabulary

In the data analysis, I explore the use of vocabulary and terms in the proposals. Such vocabulary is able to index certain discourse practices from the three contexts: PWU.

(c) Style and cohesion

In describing style, Fairclough (1992:127) argues that 'we can use terms which in part reflect mode but in part reflect tenor, or genre, or discourse, such as 'conversational', 'formal written', 'informal written', 'academic', 'journalistic', and so forth.' Students may transfer the professional practice of a particular style to academic discourse.

Fairclough (1992:83) argues that 'coherence is often treated as a property of texts, but it is better regarded as a property of interpretations. A coherent text is a text whose constituent parts (episodes, sentences) are meaningfully related so that the text as a whole "makes sense", even though there may be relatively few formal markers of those

meaningful relationships – that is, relatively little explicit “cohesion”. Fairclough (1992:235) states that the objective is to show how clauses and sentences are connected together in the text, for the description of its argumentation. A text can indeed be coherent, even with less obvious cohesive devices.

I also draw from Bakhtin (1981, 1986) to describe the conflation of style and genre in the proposals.

3.6.2 Analysis of the discursive practice

In his analysis of the discursive practice, that is, the second layer of the model, Fairclough (1992:75) distinguishes between three main concepts. These are: the force of utterances, the coherence of texts, and the intertextuality of texts. He also adds context of situation, and members’ resources. In my analysis of this category, I add addressivity and audience.

(a) Intertextuality and interdiscursivity

The term intertextuality is ascribed to Kristeva in the late 1960s. Kristeva (quoted in, Fairclough 1992:102), observed that intertextuality implies ‘the insertion of history (society) into a text and of this text into history’. Fairclough (1992:84) describes intertextuality as ‘the property texts have of being full of snatches of other texts, which may be explicitly demarcated or merged in, and which the text may assimilate, contradict, ironically echo, and so forth.’ Li (2009:92) argues that for Fairclough, intertextual analysis ‘can account for the ways in which texts are produced in relation to specific social and discursive practices in certain contexts, taking into consideration the dynamic processes of recontextualisation and reconceptualisation of different discourses.’ Fairclough (1992) argues that ‘in addition to incorporating or otherwise responding to other texts, the intertextuality of the text can be seen as incorporating the potentially complex relationships it has with the conventions (genres, discourses, styles, and activity types), which are structured together to constitute an order of discourse.’

Fairclough explains that the dimensions of intertextuality which are important in building up a framework of discourse analysis are: manifest intertextuality, interdiscursivity, textual ‘transformations’, and how texts constitute social identities.

Fairclough (1992:117-118) distinguishes between manifest intertextuality and interdiscursivity. He states that ‘manifest intertextuality is the case where specific other texts are overtly drawn upon within a text, whereas interdiscursivity is a matter of how the discourse type is constituted through the combination of elements of orders of discourse’. Fairclough (1992:68), by drawing on Foucault (1981), describes orders of discourses as ‘the totality of discursive practices within an institution or society, and the relationships between them.’ In the words of Fairclough, interdiscursivity is ‘to underline that the focus is on discourse conventions rather than other texts as constitutive’ (Fairclough, 1992:104). Ivanic (1998:48) chooses to use actual intertextuality in place of manifest intertextuality, stating that, ‘this term seems to me to capture the idea that it is an actual text that is being drawn upon, rather than an abstract text type.’ In Chapter Five, I first focus on manifest intertextuality and then shift to interdiscursivity in the data analysis and discussion.

Blommaert (2005) suggests two concepts of CDA: these are intertextuality and entextualisation. He argues that intertextuality ‘grounds discourse analysis firmly into histories of use – histories that are social, cultural and political, and which allow the synchronic use of particular expressions to acquire powerful social, cultural, and political effects’ (Blommaert, 2005:46-48). Blommaert asserts that entextualisation supports intertextuality. It refers to the ‘process by means of which discourses are successively or simultaneously decontextualised and metadiscursively recontextualised, so that they become a new discourse associated to a new context and accompanied by a particular metadiscourse which provides a sort of “preferred reading” for the discourse’ (Blommaert, 2005:47). He argues that this new discourse has become what is called a ‘text’. Blommaert’s views on intertextuality, and entextualisation have a bearing on ‘recontextualisation’, an analytical concept that is significant for my research. In fact, entextualisation and recontextualisation are synonymous. I describe recontextualisation below.

Pecorari and Shaw (2012:2) argue that it is in the nature of academic texts that they are steeped in intertextuality; they paraphrase or quote, and— ideally—use, citation as a tool to advance their arguments. Scholars have described both legitimate and illegitimate intertextuality, and transgressive and non-transgressive intertextuality, for example Chandrasoma, Thompson and Pennycook (2004). Fairclough (1992:194) states

that ‘intertextual analysis shows how texts selectively draw upon orders of discourse – the particular configurations of conventionalized practices (genres, discourses, narratives, etc.) which are available to text producers and interpreters in particular social circumstances.’ He also argues that intertextual analysis mediates between text and context in his three-dimensional framework for discourse analysis. Intertextual analysis as part of CDA is important in uncovering the contexts of textual practices (including hegemony).

(b) Addressivity and audience

The two concepts are related to style. These concepts originate from Bakhtin (1986). Bakhtin (1986:95) states that:

Both the composition and, particularly, the style of the utterance depend on those to whom the utterance is addressed, how the speaker (or writer) senses and imagines his addressees, and the force of their effect on the utterance. Each speech genre in each area of speech communication has its own typical conception of the addressee, and this defines it as a genre.

Lillis (2001:43) observes that addressivity signals that utterances, spoken or written, are addressed to someone, and thus foregrounds the ways in which this addressivity contributes to the shaping of what will be said/written. At a second level, when students are writing, they are always addressing, explicitly and implicitly, a person or people, a question or comment. Lastly, at a more abstract level, ‘all meaning making involves drawing on the meaning making of others: that is, the voices in terms of wordings, beliefs, knowledge and ideologies that are available within any given socio-cultural context’ (Lillis, 2001:44). The process of ‘drawing on the meaning making of others’ is relevant for understanding discourses. In this research, addressivity is important in the discursive practice analysis (Fairclough, 1992), for example interdiscursive analysis.

3.6.3 Discourse as social practice

The third layer in Fairclough’s model is discourse as social practice, already discussed in Chapter Two. Fairclough (1992) associates discourse as a social practice with hegemony and ideology. Fairclough asserts that, ‘ideology is located both in structures (i.e orders of discourse) which constitute the outcome of past events and the conditions

for current events, and in events themselves as they reproduce and transform their conditioning structures' (Fairclough, 1992:89). He explains that the features or levels of texts and discourses that may be ideologically invested are meanings, and other aspects of meanings such as presuppositions, metaphors, and coherence. He adds that style too may be ideologically invested. He maintains that discursive practices are ideologically invested in so far as they incorporate significations which contribute to sustaining or restructuring power relations (Fairclough, 1992:91). He argues that the concept of hegemony can assist in both the social practice and the discourse practice.

3.6.4 Other analytical concepts

Some concepts like genre and recontextualisation were not mentioned by Fairclough (1992), but they do appear in other publications. I find that these two concepts can belong to discursive practice analysis and social practice analysis. I also add to this category concepts such as hybridity, writing and identity, genre and tensions, which are relevant in answering my research questions.

(a) Recontextualisation

Recontextualisation⁹ is one of the concepts used by Bakhtin when he describes the relationship between language and context (Bakhtin, 1984). Studies that have investigated recontextualisation processes in academic writing include Cheng (2007) and Gunilla (2006). I follow the Fairclough notion of recontextualisation, which is used by theorists such as Wodak and Fairclough (2010). 'Recontextualization is often textually realised in the mixing of 'new' recontextualized elements and 'old' elements, such as particular words, expressions, arguments, topoi, rhetorical devices and so forth,' (Wodak & Fairclough, 2010:24). Linell defines recontextualisation as 'the dynamic transfer and transformation of something from one discourse/text-in-context to another'

⁹ Some studies have described the recontextualisation of the curriculum, using a Bernsteinian approach, for example Coleman (2012).

(Linell, quoted in Gunilla, 2006:674). My study focuses on this ‘dynamic transfer and transformation’ in the proposals written by MTech policing students. Gunilla (2006:674) asserts that, ‘aspects that can be transformed between contexts range from linguistic expressions, like wording, phrases and propositions, to more abstract or larger entities, like stories, arguments, knowledge, values and ideologies or ways of saying things.’ There is a difference between intertextuality and recontextualisation. Intertextuality concentrates on the histories of texts, while the latter is about agency, and the ‘new text’; Blommaert calls this ‘entextualization’, as noted above. In an ODL pedagogic context, I find the notion of ‘recontextualisation’ more fitting, especially for its usefulness in discourse terms. I find Cheng’s (2007) definition of the concept below apt:

Recontextualization is defined here as learners’ abilities not only to use a certain generic feature in a new writing task, but to use it with a keen awareness of the rhetorical context that facilitates its appropriate use. Learners need to realize that every writing task represents a new rhetorical context – a new set of rhetorical purposes and a new configuration of writer/reader relationships, among others, that may be different from the one in which a generic feature is previously noticed. Consequently, they need to realize that every time a previously noticed generic feature is used, it is used in a new or a recreated context; it needs to be recontextualized so as to achieve the rhetorical purpose and reach the audience in the new rhetorical contexts (Cheng, 2007:303).

(b) Hybridity

Although scholars such as Bakhtin view discourse as always hybrid, due to the mobility across contexts in this research (PWU), it is necessary to analyse hybridity. Fairclough (2003:216) observes that ‘texts often mix or hybridize different genres’ (e.g. ‘chat’ on television tends to be a mixture of conversation, interview, and entertainment). Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999:13) observe that people are always working with practices which are already hybrid, and that hybridity is inherent in all social uses of language. Fairclough (2003:216) observes that ‘genre mixing is an aspect of the interdiscursivity of texts, and analysing (it) allows us to locate texts within processes of social change and to identify the potentially creative and innovative work of social agents in texturing.’ The theme of hybridity has been topical in research on academic

discourse, I have discussed a view of hybridity when writing is viewed as a social practice in Chapter Two.

(c) Writing and identity

The relationship between discourse, literacy and identity has been well illustrated by Ivanic (1998), who argues that discourse and identity are intertwined. She outlines three aspects of 'writer identity'. These are the autobiographical self, the discoursal self and the self as author (Clark & Ivanic, 1997, & Ivanic 1998).

Autobiographical self

Ivanic (1998:24) asserts that this aspect of writer identity is associated with the history of the writer, where they come from, and what they bring along. It is shaped by their social and discoursal history. This is closely associated to Fairclough's (1992) intertextual analysis.

Discoursal self

This refers to the impression that the text creates. Ivanic (1998:25) argues that it is often multiple, and sometimes contradictory. Research on this aspect of identity involves making connections between research on socially available possibilities for self-hood and the discourse characteristics identified.

Self as author

This is associated with authorial stance and authorial presence. It concerns the writer's 'voice' in the sense of the writer's position, opinions and beliefs. Ivanic (1998) describes how the self as author can be an extension of the autobiographical self and hence also influence the discoursal self, such as in the textual analysis of 'authoritativeness' in academic discourse.

Of interest to my research is Ivanic's (1998:28) claim that 'clashes between writers' autobiographical identities and institutionally supported subject positions have the potential to contribute to changing the possibilities for self-hood available in the future.' I use some of these aspects when analysing the student writing in Chapter Five.

(d) Genre

Lillis (2013:70) explains that genre is used in many ways, for example:

- in literary studies to refer to different types of institutionally recognisable literary texts such as poetry, novels, plays;
- in studies of writing to refer to clusters of texts grouped according to their function or purpose, such as essays, letters, forms, academic articles;
- in SFL as one of three levels of analysis of communication, the others being register and lexicogrammar, for example Martin (2010);
- to refer to socially and culturally patterned ways of engaging in activity, for example Russell (1997); Bazerman et al. (2009); Miller (1984).

In this research, I draw from Fairclough (1992, and 2003). Genre is defined as specific discoursal aspects of ways of acting and interacting in the course of social events (Fairclough, 2003:65). Fairclough (2003) states that genres are realised in actional meanings and forms of a text, discourses in representational meanings and forms, and styles in identificational meanings and forms. Fairclough (2003:72) argues that the privileging of purpose goes along with a view of genre analysis as primarily concerned with ‘staging’ differentiating genres in terms of their generic structure. In Chapter Two, I discussed genre as a social practice, for example Russell et al. (2009), and some of the definitions of genre that are utilised in my research originating from Academic Literacies. Swales (2012) evaluates the reasons why Hyons’ (1996) review of the three traditions of genre may have been successful. Academic literacies (also called the new London School) does not feature under the Hyons (1996) overview. Swales (2012:113) observes that:

the main other focus of the new London School that differentiates it from ESP and perhaps SFL (or even New Rhetorical Studies from North America) is that it tends to resist standard academic perceptions such as relative homogeneity of student populations, the relative stability of disciplines, or the power and authority of instructors.

(e) Tensions

Fairclough (1992:68) describes lines of tension in the relationship between parts or elements of an order of discourse. He states that, ‘under different social circumstances, the same boundaries might become a focus of contestation and struggle, and the subject positions and the discursive practices associated with them might be experienced as contradictory’ (Fairclough, 1992:69). Similarly, Reuter and Lahanier-Reuter present a few concepts for analysing writing, such as the writing universe, genres, practices, disciplinary configurations, and the importance of tensions. This excerpt explains the concept of ‘tensions’;

The notion of tension is quite interesting for bringing to light problematic textual spaces, certain student writers’ difficulties, the complexity of strategies writers need to put into play, as well as the differences, even the divergences between genres or activities in a single discipline or between disciplines. (Reuter & Lahanier-Reuter, 2007:55)

Tensions are able to also relate to the conflicts and contradictions (Gee, 2012), or incommensurability (Pennycook, 1994) already raised on discourses in Chapter Two.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has described the research methodology as a combination of CDA, with ethnographic framing. The students’ voices and ‘practices’ are given prominence in keeping with an academic literacies approach, and a writing as a social practices approach. Data gathering consisted of participant observation, fieldnotes, semi-structured interviews and proposals written by the students. I then explain some of the analytical concepts that are taken from CDA, such as intertextuality, recontextualisation, and genre. Chapter Four describes the policing and academic contexts, based on the interviews with the supervisors and the observation of the students’ workshop. A week-long participant observation of a proposal-writing workshop for MTech students is also described in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four

The Academic and Policing Socio-cultural Contexts

4.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses empirical findings that characterise the academic, workplace and professional contexts. Its purpose is to describe the sociocultural context in order to answer the main research question: How do professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing graduate students intersect in the proposal? Firstly, I draw on the literature on policing, research and knowledge production (mainly Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge, as discussed in Chapter 2), and the PWU hybrid curriculum model, to interpret the MTech curriculum, Tutorial Letter 101 (a guideline document for the MTech degree), and an interview with one student. Secondly, the chapter discusses findings from the semi-structured interviews with the supervisors to shed light on the PWU model. In these interviews, I sought to uncover the values and practices of the supervisors involved in the MTech degree. All the interview prompts and questions in the semi-structured interviews were drawn from a preliminary analysis of the students' writing, as described in Chapter 3. (See Appendix A for an extract from Tutorial Letter 101, Appendix B consists of the supervisors' interview prompts, and Appendix C consists of students' interview prompts). The chapter ends with a description of a participant observation of a research proposal workshop for the MTech students.

4.2 Background to the MTech and its similarities to the hybrid curriculum (PWU)

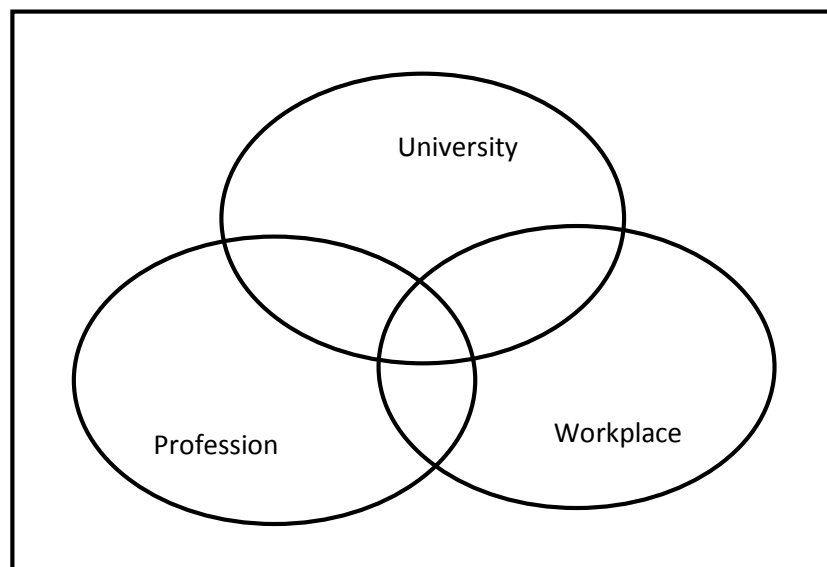
In this section, I first reproduce the Lee et al. (2000) PWU hybrid curriculum model diagram, introduced in Chapter Two, in order to show how it can be applied to my research. This model is used to describe the relationship between the PWU contexts and is not used as was originally intended, namely for curriculum design. This is useful because the CDA method will then be used to explain what lies inside or outside the intersections. Second, I discuss the background to police professional training; third, I

explain the characteristics of a comprehensive ODL university through a detailed analysis of Tutorial Letter 101 and describe the academic guidelines in the MTech curriculum. Finally, I explore proposal writing as the main focus of this research.

4.2.1 The PWU hybrid curriculum model

The intersection of the professional, workplace and university context is illustrated in the following diagram that was introduced and explained in Chapter Two:

Figure 4.1: The hybrid contextual model



Lee et al. (2000:127) PWU model

In Chapter Two, I explained the three circles by mainly drawing on literature relating to doctorates to illustrate some of the convergences and divergences. I discuss whether policing can be regarded as a profession below.

4.2.2 Policing in a semi-professional context

In Chapter Two, I discussed the history and transformation of the South African Police Service, the unique police culture, professionalism in the police and professional education associated with university education. Policing as a professional career is not acknowledged in spite of formal academic qualifications, such as the National Diploma in Policing previously offered by Technikon South Africa and now by Unisa, and the BA in Police Science, previously offered by Unisa (and was being redesigned at the

time of the data collection), and the MTech Policing degree. University education is not a pre-requisite for the police professional workplace. Unlike other professions, the police undergo a very short training after obtaining a Matric certificate (High School). The police have to undergo a six months' mandatory, basic training, and be part of a platoon where they are socialised and trained to join SAPS. Some of them proceed to do a National Diploma, a BTech and then eventually the MTech. Rauch (1992:17) conducted an assessment of the South African Police Basic Training (which was later extended after the first democratic elections in 1994) and made the following observations in a seminar organised by the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation:

The initial impression of the Colleges is that they are military institutions. This image is created by the extent to which military codes of behaviour pervade all levels of interpersonal interaction. The students march around the college in formation, or jog double-time. They queue for everything. Platoon leaders yell commands. Subordinates, of whatever rank, are supposed to greet senior staff by salute (though in practice this is not enforced in all the colleges). The social life and culture of the colleges are characterised by regimentation and uniformity, reflecting the philosophies of discipline and drill which underpin the training as a whole. The colleges merely reflect the features of the prevailing police culture.

The colleges are used for the training of some of the qualities of the police culture mentioned in Chapter Two. For example, the military character, the rank and file, and control. One comment by a student in Rauch's study (1992:33) underscores the isolation at the police training college:

We have too little contact with the public, and that means that when you go out to work, you are not used to working with the public.

We don't get enough time to watch the news or to read the newspapers

Other studies on police training present similar views. Ryan (2011) investigated the discourse practices in police vocational training in colleges in Australia, which used labels like 'perfect-self discourse' and 'command and control' subculture. White (2006:392) observes that 'the structured, prescriptive approach to police training is

justified on the grounds that it is a different kind of enterprise to an educative one taking place in a school or college. First, it is vocational learning aimed at proficiency in a specific job role; second, the role requires possession of specific knowledge and behaviour; and third, recruits are paid to turn-up.’ White (2006:398) argues that ‘police training is designed to maintain passivity and prevent active engagement with ideas.’

During the six months’ basic training, the police programme includes a course on ‘ethics education’. Rauch (1992:26) states that ‘professions are distinguished partly by that body of ideas and guidelines known as ethics’. For example, an action research project by Adlam (1998) was part of a programme on ethics education, although this was an ‘in-service’ or on the job training. Ethics education is not unique to policing; it is also found in other professional qualifications. As mentioned in Chapter Two, police ethics differ from country to country, and are often contested by the public, whom the police have to protect. This was evident in the Marikana mine shootings. The lack of ethical conduct by the police in incidents such as the Marikana mine shootings show that policing cannot be regarded as a profession. After the six months’ basic training, police are then posted to stations and are deemed to be fit to practice as professionals. Some of them then voluntarily register with Unisa.

In chapter One, I introduced Unisa in the context of higher education. In the following section, I elaborate on the institutional characteristics, the MTech curriculum, and Tutorial Letter 101 as elements of the PWU model.

4.2.3 Unisa as a comprehensive university

Unisa is a comprehensive ODL institution. Both the Council on Higher Education and Training (CHET) (2004:4) and the Department of Education (2004) outline some of the characteristics of comprehensive universities: diversity – by offering a range of programmes (vocational, career-focused, professional and general formative), accessibility, student mobility, responsiveness, and flexibility. The College of Law is one of six colleges at Unisa; within this college there are two schools, the School of Law and the School of Criminal Justice. The Department of Police Practice is part of the School of Criminal Justice. The MTech Policing degree is one of two degrees offered by the department; the other is the MTech in Forensic Investigation.

There appear to be contradictions within the MTech Policing curriculum in the context of a comprehensive ODL institution. Shay (2013) observes that the comprehensive university is a new phenomenon in SA and presents unique challenges of the curriculum in terms of their academic, professional and practical content, which also impacts on the government funding model of postgraduate degrees. Mbali (2011) outlines the debate in universities, for example the University of Kwazulu-Natal (UKZN) over the coursework and the research Masters linked to the current South African government funding model of higher education. At UKZN, the MPrac (Practical Masters) is the largest category of their Masters programmes and includes the MBA and Master's programmes in education, public health, nursing and town planning. A majority of these students cannot enrol full-time because they are employed and 'professionals'. Hence, the MPrac curriculum includes many taught courses and a smaller project (rather than a thesis) that enables them to reflect on their experience in the field. The MTech degree has the qualities of the MPrac, but none of the taught courses, suggesting that it may rather be equivalent to an MRes (Research Masters). This is likely to be one of the contradictions within the MTech curriculum (that consists of practice-based research) outlined below in Tutorial Letter 101 and which impacts on students' proposal writing.

4.2.4 Student guidelines for writing the proposal: Tutorial Letter 101

After registration for the MTech degree, students are given Tutorial Letter POL501M/101¹⁰ which is the main departmental guide given to students to undertake their studies. The Tutorial Letter has five sections:

Section 1: General information

Section 2: Submission of the research proposal

Section 3: The dissertation and its structure

Section 4: The supervision process: Roles and tasks of the supervisor and the MTech student

Section 5: The Annexures

¹⁰ Tutorial Letter 101 is a document that is given to every UNISA student outlining the aims and objectives of a program or qualification, the syllabus, and administrative information.

In order to unpack Tutorial Letter 101, one needs to interpret the 43 page document. It provides a window on the degree itself, especially the period before a student's proposal is approved or accepted.

Section 1 contains the following information:

- The contact details of the course coordinator
- An introduction to the MTech degree
- The aims of the MTech degree
- The learning material
- The due dates for submission

The introduction to the MTech degree states:

We aim to develop your intellectual and theoretical knowledge and insights into the theories, concepts and practice of policing. The degree will help you to develop your ability to engage in applied and participative problem-solving, and to do research and development, thus contributing to the socio-economic and political development of South Africa (Tutorial Letter 101, p. 5).

This suggests that the department is typical of other academic departments or disciplines, where the focus is on theoretical knowledge and application. However, there is mention of a contribution to 'the socio-economic and political development of South Africa'. It is interesting to trace the influence of the socio-economic and political dimension on the students' discourse practices. The specific aims of the MTech Policing degree are stated as 'to explore issues such as changing policing styles, empowerment and capacity-building, training and development for transformation, professionalism and accountability, transparency and openness, respect for the rule of law, inspired management and leadership, commitment to service, effectiveness and efficiency, strategic management, and rationalization of the police service' (Tutorial Letter 101, pp. 6-7). These aims are important because they underscore the unique character of the discipline. One can relate these 'themes' to the broader political, government, legal, and public discourses. Some of these are democratic values, such as transparency and openness, whilst the theme of 'strategic management' relates to business and commercial discourse.

As part of the goals and methods of the MTech degree, students are informed that they will have to read extensively, at least 30 literature sources, so that they can complete their research proposal in the first year of registration. Students are instructed to read the sources critically and review them in the proposal. Students are also advised to consult recommended readings, which give guidelines on academic writing. With regard to submission dates; students are informed that they have to arrange the due dates with their supervisors for the first and subsequent proposal drafts.

A large portion of Tutorial Letter 101 is dedicated to guidelines, pro forma, and a checklist for the research proposal. At the beginning of the section on the research proposal, the following is mentioned:

You first need to confirm with your employer that:

- The research you wish to carry out has an applied or marketable value;
- The topic will have no negative consequences for your employer; or any other negative ethical implications (Tutorial Letter 101, p.12).

The requirement to consult the employer about a suitable research area to determine its applied and marketable value, and its ethical implications, is similar to that envisaged in the PWU model. In Chapter Three, I described how access and ethics play a role in the writing of the proposal. The MTech students have to obtain approval for their research proposal from SAPS or any other public/private company that they work for. For the majority of the students, this has to be from the relevant provincial SAPS Commissioner's Research Office. This implies an implicit relationship between the workplace and the university; implicit because this is usually left as the student's responsibility, and sometimes supervisors as outsiders from SAPS may not find anything wrong with a particular study (as shown in comments made by one supervisor below).

Students are informed that the research problem should originate from the following sources:

- Your own practical situations and experiences;
- Problems encountered by the police;
- Problems facing society or a specific community;

- Scientific literature and policing theories (Tutorial Letter 101, p.12).

The research problems that I encountered were largely based on the first three sources; not many were based on ‘scientific literature and policing theories’. Students are also given guidelines on the formulation of the research problem, together with a checklist for the suitability of the research problem. The Tutorial Letter also explains the ‘adjudication’ process to be followed in the approval or disapproval of the research proposal. For example, once the supervisor receives the final draft, he or she calls a meeting of the Criminal Justice Research and Postgraduate Studies Committee. The Committee evaluates the feasibility of the research proposal. I did not see the assessment criteria/rubric outlined in the Tutorial Letter. Assessment of the proposal does not appear to be transparent, based on the information provided in the Tutorial Letter.

On pages 18-22 of Section 2 of the Tutorial Letter, students are given a five-page checklist of questions to use to make sure that the contents of the research proposal are complete. These questions are based on each of the subheadings in the proposal, e.g title, problem statement, aims of the research, and purpose of the research.

In Section 3, students are given brief information on the dissertation and its structure. The roles and responsibility of the student and the supervisor are outlined in Section 4. After registration, students are sent a letter, informing them who their supervisor will be. Students therefore have no choice in who the supervisor should be. At the end of the Tutorial Letter is a glossary of terms used in the Tutorial Letter, such as academic, argument, critical analysis, discipline, internet, supervisor, operationalise, reference, summary, and topic. A glossary defining such terms may not be sufficient to acquire the complex skills needed to perform tasks, such as referencing. Students are referred to further resources that are available. The challenge is that in Open Distance Learning, students learn independently.

In Section 5, students are given three documents. These are: a template for the cover of the research proposal, a ‘Goldfields’ library and information centre template, and a pro forma for the research proposal. The pro forma for the research proposal is one of the documents that is used intertextually by the learners. It appears to be used by all the students, even though they have different supervisors. Students are given definitions, explanations, and advice on how to write the sections of the proposals (See Appendix

A, Extract from pages 35 to 36 of Tutorial Letter 101). For example, Tutorial Letter 101 states the following about the inclusion of key theoretical concepts:

Extract from Tutorial Letter 101:

6 KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS/CONSTRUCTS OF THE STUDY

The problem statement contains a number of concepts that should be defined clearly. You have to provide accurate and unambiguous definitions of the most important concepts and ensure that these concepts are used consistently throughout the research dissertation.

The definition of key concepts is necessary to identify related research and to place the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. It involves two steps:

- a conceptual or theoretical definition
- an operational definition

The conceptual or theoretical definition should be derived from the literature. An operational definition assigns meaning by specifying what must be measured or assessed or how it should be measured or assessed. In this case, it is also important to substantiate all facts and to acknowledge all sources consulted.

(Tutorial Letter 101,p. 36)

The guidelines state that the key theoretical concepts should be informed by reading the literature. The literature should provide ‘a conceptual or theoretical definition’ (Mode 1) and ‘an operational definition’ (Mode 2). The Tutorial Letter paints a balanced picture between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge. This appears to be the ideal, which may not be matched by the reality. The pro forma for the research proposal is perhaps the one document that is extensively drawn on by the learners. All their proposals follow this format. In Chapter Five, I show the intertextual chains (Fairclough, 1992) in the key theoretical concepts.

Following the description and interpretation of Tutorial Letter 101 above, I also interviewed some of the students about the MTech Policing guidelines, and the challenges they face with ODL.

4.3 A Student's views of studying through an ODL institution

I interviewed the six students, whose profiles are presented in Chapter Five. For the purpose of this chapter, I draw from an interview with one student, whose experiences are similar to many other police postgraduate students. Sipho has over twenty years' experience as a policeman, and was a Station Commander at a small town in the Eastern Cape. Below, he responds to my question about his views on ODL. Supervision at an ODL institution is conducted through difficult means of communication:

Researcher: And then how do you feel about open distance learning?

Sipho: Yes, there are challenges but they can be overcome. Like for instance you don't always see someone who is a supervisor. Sometimes you have to communicate with telephone, emails and all those things, which make it difficult. And sometimes, you see, the supervisors themselves are always busy. They are always busy, you cannot always find them. Like for instance now, I have to consult my supervisor, it is not easy, he's always attending classes and so on. So that is the disadvantage of distance learning.

Sipho lives far from the main Unisa campus in Pretoria, making face-to-face appointments with his supervisor difficult. The supervisor is said to be very busy. Technological methods, such as skype, online chatrooms, and so on are under-utilised at Unisa. The traditional methods that have been used in correspondence distance learning, such as telephone and emails, have proved to be a challenge for the student. This falls short of the ideal, in which Unisa, as an ODL institution, promises effective student interaction, support and teaching through multimedia and technology.

I also sought to find out whether supervisors were guiding students in research writing and how the writing of the proposal was being taught within an ODL institution:

Researcher: What did your supervisor say about your proposal writing? If you can remember anything, particularly writing the proposal.

Sipho: You see before I wrote the proposal, my supervisor gave me an assignment that I have to do something....you see, I have to outline everything about what I was intending to do. That is the research outline. And it was almost challenging for me because it was not easy. You see, I was not computer literate before I can do this, before I did this dissertation, the research proposal. His first comment was that I must change the font. I didn't know even a font. I didn't know even the names, New Times, New Roman, but now I know everything. I know everything. So he guided me how to do these things. There are words that he guided me not to use, like for instance, like, and

everything. And I, the first person, and all those things. So these things, these are the things that he told me not to do.

In my experience with the Department of Police Practice, there have been different ways of ‘scaffolding’ the proposal for the students. In Chapter One, I mentioned a ‘portfolio’ that was previously used to prepare students for the actual writing of the proposal. In this interview, the student alludes to one strategy used by his supervisor, which was to initially ask him to write a three page outline of what he was intending to do. In my own department (English Studies) my colleagues call it a ‘statement of intent’. Sipho faced numerous challenges with this task, mostly to do with his lack of computer literacy, which is an important component of academic literacies. He also had to be taught the distinction between the ‘first person’ and the ‘third person’ (by the supervisor). Although this is not mentioned in the Tutorial Letter, in interviews with other supervisors it was made clear to me that students have to write in the third person for objectivity, and ‘bracketing’¹¹. In my intertextual analysis of the proposals I uncovered some of the tensions with this requirement of academic literacies (the preferred use of the third person instead of the first person). These will be analysed in Chapter Five.

The use of templates, formats, and checklists has been common in teaching research writing in ODL institutions. Some sections of Tutorial Letter 101 include these:

Researcher: Okay. And how did you find using those sub headings, using that kind of template, structure?

Sipho: Yes, it was not easy to use that template, because, you see, as I have said, I was assisted by people from Fort Hare¹². Therefore, sometimes I was using their format, then it was queried at Unisa because there is this format that has to be used. But I ended up using it.

Sipho reveals that he consulted his local university for help whenever in need. This includes help with books, and writing support. Sipho initially tried to depart from Unisa’s Tutorial Letter guidelines, by following a different structure in his proposal, with different subheadings. However, this was not accepted by his supervisor, and he

¹¹ Bracketing is a research concept in qualitative research whereby researchers explain who they are in order to minimise bias and subjectivity. Tufford and Newman (2010:81) define bracketing as ‘a method used by some researchers to mitigate the potential deleterious effects of unacknowledged preconceptions related to the research and thereby to increase the rigor of the project’.

¹² Fort Hare refers to another University in SA, the University of Fort Hare located in the Eastern Cape

had to abandon it and follow Unisa's provisions in its Tutorial Letter. Checklists for research proposals have been proposed to improve throughput for Masters and Doctoral students in the College of Economic Management Science at Unisa, (Marx, 2011). However, genre theorists suggest that sticking strictly to narrow formats/structure may pigeonhole students too much (Paxton, 2013).

I now turn to the ethnographic interviews with the supervisors to deepen my understanding of the sociocultural context (PWU). The supervisors have to mediate over and above what is contained in Tutorial letter 101. For example, Sipho declares that he was not computer literate when he started the proposal, and he could not distinguish between writing in the first person and third person. He emphasises that he now 'knows everything'. On the contrary, the Tutorial Letter 101 itself could be misinterpreted by the students and therefore a source of discourse 'clashes'.

4.4 A supervisors' view on workplace-based research

As mentioned in Chapter Two, it was not easy to isolate the workplace from the professional and university contexts because of the debates in the literature. The interviews revealed more about the workplace, suggesting that it is a significant category in the PWU Model. Although it is possible to separate the university from the workplace, the workplace has a strong influence on the university. This suggests an intermingling of the workplace and university contexts. In my interviews with the supervisors, I asked the question:

- How does the degree ensure that there is a difference between what students are doing for work and that which is manageable, and doable for an MTech degree?

Villa is one of the supervisors. She only has experience in education, unlike other supervisors who were previously police professionals.

Villa's perspective

Responding to the question 'How do supervisors teach students the differences between workplace and research writing?', Villa insisted that it is a good thing if the students relate their research to their duties. The topic for the research should come from the workplace. She said she likes it when the students 'mix research with work' because the students know that area very well. Villa said she teaches her students 'bracketing', a

technique for the separation of work and research defined above, and makes them write a 'long full paragraph' on bracketing. She stated that studies based on the workplace 'go quick', and are completed in good time. Villa's response was not what I was looking for in relation to my research question, however, she gave an answer which may relate to 'research literacies'.

Villa tried to discourage students from researching something outside their current workplace. She gave an example of a student, whose studies concerned sector policing in Tembisa, although he was currently working in the Head Division Training in Pretoria and not in sector policing in Tembisa. She gave the following illustration in the statement below:

I have got at the moment a student who is working in head division training and he is doing his research on sector policing in Tembisa. Now he knows nothing about sector policing. So it's a big learning curve for him, but if he was working in sector policing, he would have known the act, the regulations and all of those, so I actually think I would recommend that the student is doing it in the line of work, (Interview with Villa).

Villa said that this particular student was struggling in his studies. Sector policing is a policing operational strategy, and may not be understood by a student who is working in training. There are acts and regulations that govern sector policing. Some of these acts end up being part of the research. According to Villa, the workplace is key for the students. When the supervisor questioned the student to find out what was behind his interest in Tembisa, an area about 50 km from 'the head division training' in Pretoria, she found out that the student had a friend who was doing a similar topic. She used this example to emphasise the need for students to choose a topic based on their workplace practices.

Villa draws strong distinctions between the work-based research and theory. In the interview, she argued that the focus of the MTech degree is more practical than theoretical. Alluding to the divide between theory and practice, or real-world research and 'gap-in-knowledge' research, Villa articulated that:

One aspect that worries me very much is that I think many people think research is esoteric. It should be this highfaluting fancy world. A theoretical argument that sits there. I think there is a place for it but I think there is a very small place for it. I think too little of our research is practical, is hands on, especially in a country like South

Africa with enormous policing crime problems. For interest sake, in our department we have got too many M students. We cannot handle all of them. Whereas in the department of criminology I believe, who is more theoretical, and so forth. They have got so few students, because there is not a demand for it. I am actually at the moment for my own research, doing theory testing, but on a very practical level. I think we should bring research down to practical everyday solutions. Obviously most of the research in our department is qualitative, so it cannot be generalised but it can be transferred. So it's not that we are providing definite answers to all the problems. That's not what we are trying to do - but to specific situations. An example - one of my M students did his research on firearm licenses and at-risk persons. That was about 4/5 years ago, and his recommendations were not implemented by the police. And you know the crisis at the moment at the police sits in with fire arms, and identifying at-risk people. So if they only would have taken his recommendation and implemented it. I am not saying all the problems but many of the problems that they are experiencing at the moment, would not have happened, (Interview with Villa).

Villa embodies a discourse of pragmatism in her attitude to research. For example, she distances herself from research that is 'highfaluting fancy world'. She observes that others view research as 'theoretical' and 'esoteric'. This division resembles the arguments made by Gibbons et al. (1994) concerning the changing landscape of research and the production of knowledge, that is, the divide between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge. Here the binary is between theory and practice in the policing discipline. Gibbons et al. (1994, quoted in San Miguel & Nelson, 2007:76) assert that Mode 1 knowledge is generated within universities and then applied to practical, 'real-world' problems in the broader society, whereas Mode 2 knowledge is generated in the broader society (See Chapter 2, for a discussion on forms of knowledge). Villa compared her department with the department of criminology. Her department has a larger number of students, because of the demand for practical, rather than a theoretical discipline. When mapping the two departments into the knowledge and disciplinary groupings of Becher and Trowler (2001:36), I observe that the Department of Police Practice would fit into the 'soft-applied', while the Department of Criminology would resemble the 'soft-pure'. Both departments are within the social science field. However, one is shown to be pure social science; the other an applied social science. Perhaps it is the 'applied' orientation that makes the MTech degree more popular.

‘Practical’ research is seen as having the potential to contribute to solutions and improve the work of SAPS. However, sometimes the recommendations made by the MTech Policing students are ignored. This suggests a devaluing of the academic research by the workplace. An example is given by Villa of how a student’s research could have solved problems of firearm licenses. Firearms control is one of the priorities for the police. For instance, Vetten (2012:23) argues that ‘limiting and controlling the availability of firearms—both legal and illegal—is a police priority and their success can be judged against targets they have set themselves’. According to Villa, therefore, applied and practical research in the context of students’ work, can enhance the work of the police, as illustrated by the research on firearms. However, in this case, the workplace ignored the research once it was completed. A point I return to below.

This emphasis on finding solutions to the problems identified in their workplace is the preferred mode of knowledge in the policing discipline and is reflected at times in police students’ proposal writing. San Miguel and Nelson (2007:73) underscore the difference between practice-driven research problems as opposed to ‘gap in the knowledge’ type of research:

In the literature on professional doctorate programmes it is often claimed that what distinguishes these from PhD programmes is the high value placed on generating practice-based knowledge to address ‘real-world’ problems.

The MTech degree can be described as a degree that is based on ‘real-world’ policing problems, and the research is based on practice. To illustrate the PWU partnership between the university and the workplace, Villa observes that the workplace police ‘commissioner’ is responsible for the approval of the research topic in the proposal:

No.1 to get permission to do the research, the student compiles a research proposal, and you know that takes 3 months, 6 months. Sometimes even longer, then you submit it to the police. They say no. We don’t like this and we don’t like that, or we completely don’t want the study to happen, because it’s too sensitive. Even though it’s not sensitive information, you know like security stuff. So that’s the one challenge, (Interview with Villa).

The police organisation can make changes to the research or even prevent the research from taking place. This process not only affects the proposal, but also affects the actual dissertation. Students have to submit a copy of the dissertation to the SAPS research

office before submitting the dissertation for assessment to the university. In principle, SAPS can insist on the removal of content that may be deemed to be ‘sensitive information’. The workplace acts as a gatekeeper. In Chapter Six, two students (Maggie and Sipho) reveal the consequences of this PWU interaction through their recontextualisation strategies in writing their proposals. The literature on the proposal genre outlined in Chapter Two, for example that of Allison (2003) and Cadman (2002) describes the gatekeeping function and the contested nature of the proposal within the university context. Gatekeeping by the workplace reveals an unequal power-sharing relationship between the workplace and the university, in the sense that the workplace seems to have control over the research ethics, during the research and also at the final stages before it is submitted to the university for examination.

Studies on the hybrid curriculum outlined in Chapter Two, such as Maxwell’s (2003) study of the EdD, indicate a close link between the profession and the university. The MTech degree may resemble the EdD by being workplace-based in that the research problem originates from the workplace, but the ‘contested’ partnership between Unisa and SAPS means that the relationship is not smooth and certainly results in tensions, as exemplified by the views of the supervisors and later the students.

So far I have shown how the workplace and the academic context interact from the point of view of a supervisor who has never been a police official under SAPS. I also sought to get the views of the supervisors on the professional context. This is well articulated by those supervisors who formerly worked as policemen.

4.5 Policing workplace identities in academic writing

During the interviews, I questioned the supervisors about the relationship between professional duties and the research process of the MTech degree. I showed supervisors, Menzi and Kgomotso, excerpts from the students’ proposals in order to ask whether the students would be able to “provide justice” as some of them indicated. The following proposal excerpt was used as a prompt for a conversation with the two supervisors:

Extract from Sipho’s proposal

It is also an intension of this study to provide justice to domestic violence victims i.e. at police station and at the courts (Sipho’s’ proposal, page 2)

This research will generate local interest amongst members of the SAPS who will take part in it and those who become aware of it. The researcher expects the X (omission of place name) cluster, SAPS management locally and provincial management to draw lessons from this research. Stake holders from outside the SAPS, such as the local courts and nongovernmental organizations will value the research as part of their reference system for evaluating the SAPS in the area of domestic violence. This research study is aiming at improving service delivery to members of the public (Sipho's proposal, page 8). (See Chapter Five for a linguistic analysis of students' proposals).

In addition to this, I also sought to find out whether students were aware of themselves as researchers, in other words, aware of their identity as not just police officials while conducting the research.

Menzi and Kgomo's perspectives

Menzi's response to my question about the intersection between the profession and the university was to do with understanding the role of the police and the research purpose:

Already by being a police official you are there to provide justice. Your problem is also in the police context, the aim and objective of the study is to address the problem, for example, domestic violence. There are lots of gaps in the domestic violence act, for example, (in) countries such as the US, Ghana, Canada and Australia, the act makes provision of victim empowerment. Now in SA we don't have that. There is also the issue of roles of the police and the judge. This side it's not clear, if the student is researching domestic violence he should be able to say that he will make policy recommendations based on the gaps that are there in the domestic violence act. By virtue of being a police officer he is already providing justice. He can not say that my research will provide justice, some of them are taking chances because they think you do not have police experience, (Interview with Menzi).

Menzi first refers to the professional role that is associated with the position of the student, and the function of the police, for example, 'already by being a police official you are there to provide justice'. According to Menzi, it is the student's duty as a member of the police service to provide justice; this is not an aim of the research. Menzi also gives an example of a researchable topic, e.g. 'gaps in the domestic violence act'. This research topic lends itself to a 'real-world' problem, as opposed to the 'gap-in-the knowledge' type of research (San Miguel & Nelson, 2007) and typically to Mode 2

levels of knowledge, (Gibbons et al., 1994). The supervisor observes that the police students ‘take chances’ when writing by thinking that the academic reader is not somebody who is in the police or who has experience of being a police officer. This suggests that there is an attitude of ‘us and them’, the police (us) versus them (the academics). This reinforces the divide between the university and the police workplace. The supervisor explains below that this tendency originates from the basic training that the police receive before being assigned to specific locations or stations and taking up duties.

When I asked Menzi about the academic writing relating to some of the subheadings in the proposal, for example where students define what a literature review is (explained in the next chapters), he mentioned the attitudes that the police students display in their university assignments:

Researcher: I have also observed over the years that students start by defining or even advising what is the literature review or methodology, why do they do that?

Menzi: I have also picked that up, it has to do with not knowing academic language. My understanding is that it is part of the police culture. You know police culture says that somebody who is not of that environment is regarded as a foreigner. So it’s us, we must tell you what is the thing-the instructional kind of approach. If I can give you second year students - I am responsible for second year students for Crime Information Systems - 60 % of the assignments are written on the cover page that ‘police official’, and then I respond and say that ‘I am aware that you are a police official.’ It’s that environment, they think it’s theirs, and they have the authority. You look at the content of the assignment and you see that it is a person with authority. He says you must listen to me, (Interview with Menzi.)

On several occasions during the unstructured interview, when I asked about some of the proposals, Menzi referred to the context of culture (police subculture). He says that the police are trained to think that somebody who is not part of them is a foreigner. They are used to being authoritative, and to giving instructions. The supervisor states that through police academic writing, he can detect that they are saying ‘you must listen to me...’ (This suggests the analysis on ‘audience’ in Chapter Six). I then went on to ask Menzi how the police become socialised into such a culture, knowing that he would be

able to answer this because he had worked as a police official and also a trainer at one police college:

You are socialised into it, when you are at the college, you are in a confined environment, and that environment is a paramilitary environment. They convert you from a civilian into a police official - You are now adopting a new culture, that is why it is called a subculture - The way to stand up, you dress, you shave, you address somebody, the friends, the lecturers there, its how they behave. You are being socialised, and when you go out to the police station, you meet police officials they will all teach you their culture there. When you come as a student, you will be swallowed by the subculture, they will tell you that here this is how we do things. There is another subculture, (Interview with Menzi).

Menzi describes the initial six-months training after recruitment, prior to being posted to a police station. He describes the subculture in the police colleges. He refers to it as a 'paramilitary environment', echoing some of the literature on police culture discussed in Chapter Two, for example Smit (1981), Chan (1996), Adlam (1999, 2002), Ryan (2008) and Berning and Masiloane (2011). The training emphasises a particular kind of behaviour, dress code and conduct. Adlam (1999:59) explains that 'police are inducted into cultural forms that are hierarchical ('know your place', 'control') and demand certain sorts of psychosocial responses if the individual is to be a fully-fledged cultural member or player ('bonding', the acceptance and use of a certain sort of humour, etc.)' Menzi then alludes to the fact that the workplace (referring to the actual police stations) also has its own subculture. It is interesting that the professional culture that Menzi describes has to do with 'behaviour' and 'being'. In relation to being different from so-called 'civilians' or the general public, another interest is whether the subculture of the workplace is the same as the subculture of the police college, since Menzi alludes to being 'swallowed' by another subculture above.

In describing the subculture of police training and the workplace context, it is interesting that Menzi emphasises the police subculture during their professional training and in the workplace. His colleague, Kgomotso, elaborates on this by describing the workplace (subculture) context.

4.5.1 Police workplace subculture

Kgomotso describes the police organisation as “anti-intellectual”. He observes that the organisation frustrates people who want to continue with their studies to improve their academic qualifications:

Okay, first of all, the South African Police Service is the biggest organisation in that field and now you know there are also the Metro Police. These organisations are non/education, anti-intellectual. Most of us in the department, people who have come. We have left the organisation to do Masters and PhDs. We didn’t necessarily leave because there were no prospects and stuff. Just to cite an example, I have a friend who was already a station commissioner, and then he got a scholarship to do a Masters at Harvard University. They frustrated him so much, they could have granted him unpaid study leave. This is also what I took for a year for my Masters. This is what they said, they said, ‘your post is critical we can’t let you go for a year to further your studies.’ And this was after more than a decade of contribution in the organisation, and his best performance, and actually he was dismissed in absentia. There are also a lot of our students who are frustrated simply because the organisation is not an educational organisation. They frustrate you when you are educated. So I mean students who come there have limitations because that is where they spend a lot of their time. It is not an academic organisation...it is non-academic, (Interview with Kgomotso).

The police do not get support for pursuing studies, suggesting that those who are doing the MTech degree are actually doing it in their own capacity, self-will and agency. SAPS as a workplace is portrayed as an organisation that is against tertiary education. This suggests that individuals who are studying have a strained relationship with their workplace superiors, suggesting a tension between the profession and workplace in the PWU model. Improvement of qualifications was mentioned as an indication of professional development in Chapter Two. However, the data suggests that it can also lead the police into bad relationships with their superiors. The values and attitudes of police raise questions for my research as to the nature of the intersection/relationship between the workplace and the university. However, when I interviewed some of the students it appears that this negative attitude towards education is not old, it is one of the recent changes post-1994, (as seen in Rick’s profile in Chapter Five, he has been stuck in the rank of captain for sixteen years.) Kgomotso and Menzi agree on the devaluing of education. According to Menzi:

I think the culture as well at the moment is not that conducive. I used to work at (a) Police College, and there the competition was tight, by then there was a value attached to education. If you get your courses, it was a passport to climb and they would tell you that, ‘you know, you see that guy there? He is not long in the police but he opens books, he reads. Can you see how he is progressing?’ So there was a fierce competition. But now the competition is no longer there, I think the standard has sort of dropped (Interview with Menzi).

The supervisor is blaming the context of the workplace police culture for the students’ failure to progress with their studies. Menzi makes a strong link between literacy and social mobility in terms of rising within the police ranks in the past. It is interesting to relate this to the pre- and post-1994 changes within SAPS. Now that studies are not a prerequisite for obtaining promotions, this has removed the ‘fierce competition’. As mentioned in Chapter Two, part of the contestation around professionalism lies in the fact that currently the policy on promotion is not available (according to some of the students, as outlined in Chapter Five). The lack of transparency in the criteria for promotion makes the issue of whether the police are indeed professional or not debatable. The issue of linking promotions to qualifications is not an official promotion policy in the police service. Those who think it might lead to promotions are disappointed (as shown in some of the interviews with the supervisors and the students). In this context, it is interesting to note Villa’s comment that there is a huge demand for the MTech Policing degree, amid the challenges students experience in the workplace. Both Menzi and Kgomotso emphasise the paramilitary and anti-educational nature of the police profession and the workplace. This suggests that when these two intersect with the university there can be conflicts.

4.5.2 Supervisors’ views on policing as an academic discipline

In exploring the PWU conceptual model, I also describe characteristics of the university context, that is, policing as an academic discipline at Unisa. According to Menzi, the research carried out by the police is different from social science research. Therefore, the books that the students use during their undergraduate studies are not ideal for their studies (Kgomotso complained about students’ ‘underpreparedness’ and blamed this on the lack of relevant textbooks during the undergraduate stage). Menzi says there is a

need for a book containing information on the criminal justice system, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) and the courts.

We are saying let's make it to be on the Criminal Justice System so that when we talk about Criminal Justice System, those officials should be able to understand what you are talking about. In his or her life he can be able to relate to that, we can give examples about the NPA or the courts, correctional services, but if we talk about Social Science, then this guy is getting lost (Interview with Menzi).

Menzi advocates a research module and a book to be introduced at the third-year level, in order to build on the academic discipline. This is the last year in the National Diploma in Policing and is prior to the BTech. This module should be aimed at teaching the police specific methods that are applicable in the policing context. He observes that students get confused if they encounter examples from social science research methods. The new textbook that he proposed in the interview (and is currently writing), will be based on examples from the criminal justice system, such as the SAPS, the courts, and the NPA. Menzi describes the disciplinary character of police practice. He suggests that the students are not able to apply social science methods to their criminal justice background. This may be in line with Becher and Trowler's (2001, 35-39) classification of the social sciences as both 'soft-pure' and 'soft-applied' in terms of disciplinary groupings or knowledge domains (c.f. Chapter Two). This means that the MTech students are struggling to make sense of the knowledge domains, suggesting the need to change their reading material, as proposed by Menzi. Menzi's book will use social science concepts and methods in the context of policing.

In the following discussion, I uncover a number of academic disciplinary practices by narrating the experience of being a participant observer of one week-long workshop at a Unisa venue in Pretoria, where students were invited to come for a 'proposal-writing week'.

4.6 Observation of the MTech research workshop: A university encounter

As part of the sub-questions for this PhD study, I was interested in exploring the writing-based practices and values in the MTech degree, and what the writing-based practices in the police professional context are. I was also interested in finding out how these

discourse practices are recontextualised in academic writing in the MTech proposals. I was asked to participate in a workshop from the 6th to the 10th of June 2011. The workshop was organised by the supervisors for the new in-take of students registered for the MTech Policing degree (I continue participating in these annual one-week workshops to this date). The attendance ranged between 15 and 21 students for the five days. At Unisa, face-to-face workshops cannot be made compulsory for students to attend because of the ODL mode of teaching and learning. The workshop's focus was on 'Research proposal writing' (see Appendix E). The rest of the facilitators for the workshop came from the Department of Police Practice. The topics covered included: research paradigms, academic writing, ethics in research, research question, problem statement, aims and goals, literature review, sampling frameworks, and data collection. The workshop focused on research issues that are typically dealt with in the humanities and education fields. In my view as an academic literacies teacher, this suggests that some research concepts are common to the social sciences, humanities and education disciplines. However, the MTech Policing degree differs in that it is largely 'practice' oriented, in the context of what comprehensive universities are meant to offer and in light of the PWU conceptual model. Ironically, there was less focus on academic writing except for my own session.

I was invited to participate in the workshop to facilitate a four-hour session on academic writing. The invitation came because of the relationship that I have developed over the years with some of the supervisors. As mentioned in Chapter One, I was a Writing Centre tutor and also an academic support tutor for Mtech Policing students between 2004 and 2006. The supervisors regard me as an expert on academic writing. They also knew that I was researching the MTech Policing proposals, since some of them had already been requested to participate in the research. I accepted the invitation because of my interest in ethnography. My research is ethnographically sensitive, as described in Chapter Three. My presentation was on the first day of the workshop during the afternoon, between 12 pm and 4 pm. I conducted a workshop on some of the generic features of academic writing, such as the difference between undergraduate and post-graduate academic writing, the writing process (including receiving critiques from the supervisor), and time-management. I presented the workshop for approximately three hours, which was the maximum time that I was allocated. The rest of the time was spent doing participant observation, in order to gain a quasi-thick description of the writing-

based discourses practices in the MTech degree. I only participated in the workshop when there was a direct question addressed to me in my role as an expert on academic writing, which was ascribed to me by being one of the facilitators. I gained the impression that the students viewed me as a caring person, who was interested in finding out how they were coping with the academic challenges they were facing. For example, during the workshop, while I was sitting at the back, one of the students asked me about 'quotations'. Students began to ask me questions informally and to share their frustrations with me in the hope of getting support.

At the beginning of the week, on Monday morning, students were invited to express their expectations of the five-day workshop. The expectations were expressed verbally, while one of the facilitators captured them in point-form on a flip chart. The discussion around the expectations lasted for over an hour. The following are some of the expectations that were mentioned, some of them are written in the direct words of the students:

4.6.1 Expectations from the workshop

- a) I would like to know how to write academically.
- b) I would like to know how to quote and how to reference.
- c) I would like to know how to start to write my research. (The student also gave an analogy of how hard it is to learn to drive a car in order to illustrate the challenge of learning to write as an adult student).
- d) One student wanted to know the time-frame which it would take between the lecturer and the student after the student had submitted a draft, that is, the turn- around time of receiving feedback from a lecturer.
- e) The students expressed that they would like to be able to write a good research proposal and to conduct research.
- f) Some of the challenges that they mentioned were referencing, methodology, and how to conduct a literature review.
- g) One student wanted to know how to identify important facts for a problem statement.
- h) One student asked a question about the duration of the MTech degree because some of the students had dropped out.

In relation to (d) above, there were concerns about communication and response time from supervisors. Students wanted to know how to deal with delayed feedback from the supervisors. Some supervisors were blamed for poor communication with the students and not responding punctually to the students. In defence of the supervisors, one of the workshop facilitators mentioned that they would like to get students 'out of the system quickly because they get money from the government,' meaning that the department would like to see the students getting their degrees quickly, so that they can get funding subsidy from the Department of Higher Education and Training. As mentioned in Chapter One, the funding model for postgraduate students is such that the university gets a significant amount of money when a student graduates. This is one of the benefits to the institution if a student completes successfully. The supervisor who responded to this concern mentioned that she was not capable of speaking on behalf of all supervisors when it came to their punctuality in giving feedback to students.

One of the supervisors responded to (h) above by saying that this workshop had been organised to assist them in getting through. She also mentioned that if they spend more than four years on the degree, the university does not get a subsidy. The duration could be two years for a Masters or Doctorate degree, but it was up to the students to pace themselves by using the networks and the information that would be disseminated during the workshop. The facilitator gave an example of a student who took six years to complete the Masters and two years for the PhD.

These expectations reveal some of the literacy needs and challenges faced by students in ODL institutions. The supervisors responded to those which appear to deal with administrative issues, and roles and responsibility, but not to those which related to research writing. It is worth mentioning that the students' expectations were strongly related to academic writing and yet the workshop focused on research paradigms and methods. Some of the issues raised resonate with generic undergraduate academic discourse and others concerned postgraduate academic literacies. In the following section, I describe some of the tensions and discourse clashes that I observed from the workshop. The workshop observation reveals interesting views and perspectives from the students on the relationship between the elements in the PWU model (again, emphasis is mainly between the workplace and the university).

4.6.2 Power dynamics when receiving feedback

There were two female supervisors at the workshop. One of the slides in my PowerPoint presentation showed the writing process (from drafting to publishing). I emphasised that feedback from supervisors was received between the various stages of the writing process. Postgraduate students send their drafts to the supervisor and then get feedback to be used in redrafting; this process usually takes the form of multiple drafts. One student reacted to this point by saying that if he receives feedback it is negative and he gets disappointed and feels rejected. He retorted, 'I am a police, you are a supervisor, you have never been a police, how can you tell me what to do?'

This was said by one of the most senior police officials in rank who was attending the workshop - a Lieutenant General. This student expressed some doubt at having to be supervised by academics who have never themselves been police. This showed a conflict between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge. The student was indicating that he regarded his workplace knowledge (Mode 2) as superior to academic knowledge (Mode 1).

A supervisor responded and told the students that they should write their own books if they did not want negative criticism, and that this was not possible in academia. Another student said that, 'practically I know the work'. This student was referring to his professional experience. This exchange corroborates a previous study on feedback that I conducted with MTech students (Ndlangamandla, 2010), where students expressed their frustrations at being asked to do multiple drafts. Studies of professional postgraduate writing highlight the complexities of research writing at the interface between the professional, workplace, and university context, for example San Miguel and Nelson (2007), Yam (2005) and Watts (2009). These studies show that students may be unable to understand the relationship between the three different knowledge domains.

Their participation during my presentation revealed asymmetrical power and gender imbalances. Another male student said he had a problem because he had changed his workplace and position. The female supervisor said he should change the topic, and base it on his new job. The student felt that this was unfair because his interest was still with the old topic and the previous work attachment. Such conflicts can be a result of

gender dynamics between supervisors and students. I refer to gender because this particular student who had a problem with the topic was male; his supervisor was female. In my interview with this supervisor, she expressed the fact that she felt that some of the male students resisted being guided by a female.

4.6.3 Criticising the police organisation

While I was facilitating the workshop, I mentioned some of the discourse practices around academic discourse, such as reflection and criticism. I explained the need to adopt a critical stance towards the research topic in the research writing. One of the students told of an incident of a student who apparently wrote a project that exposed the fact that ‘service delivery’ was not working. This person received a stern warning from the police commissioner and almost lost his/her job. One of the supervisors mentioned that there are police policies on conducting research and that the Access to Information Act must be obeyed by students who undertake research within the police force. The research report is also read and approved by the police research management before it is published or submitted for assessment to the university.

There was an intense discussion on the dangers to one’s career of criticising the police organisation. Apparently, no criticism is allowed from people inside the police organisation. The students gave an example of a popular crime expert from the Institute of Security Studies and said that as he is now a retired policeman, he can say anything, but before that he could not criticise. One student, General Mandla (not his real name), who was senior amongst the group, said that in the issue of criticism, the main thing that the police are looking for is ‘discipline’ ‘protocol’ or ‘touchline’. I found the three words confusing at first and asked the student to repeat them and to clarify what they meant, especially the last one, ‘touchline’. I then realised that this was police jargon for somebody who was being dismissed, by using a sporting metaphor, in this case, dismissal from the organisation. In other words, failure to obey the rules, follow the commands, adhere to protocol, is likely to render the offender an outsider from the organisation. Critical reflection on one’s practice appears to be at odds with the ‘rank-and-file’ nature of police officers (Adlam, 1999). Similarly, Ryan (2009:1) observes that police management education has a ‘subculture resistant to theoretical analysis and critical reflection, and a set of unconscious and unchallengeable assumptions regarding police work, conduct, and leadership.’ In Chapter One, I described my expectations of

academic discourse, including the need for critical consciousness, (Bizzell 1992). This is one of the instances of the discourse clashes. Academic institutions are founded on values of academic freedom, but a police institution is not. Criticism can be found in professions as one of the means for ‘improvement’. In this case, the workplace contradicts the professional and university values of criticism.

Students expressed concern that it depends on who you are within the organisation. One student gave an example of a study that exposed corruption in the form of bribes within the police organisation. This student was a commissioner¹³ who was able to criticise the institution in her report, but was not dismissed. Therefore, the power to criticise the institution appears to be dependent on the position within the ranks, confirming Adlam’s (2002) analysis of police leadership and organisations as an example of ‘socio-biological elitist rationality’. In other words, the rules and procedures are not applied consistently across the ranks; people who are lower in the ranks are closely guarded when conducting research, so that they do not expose sensitive information or criticise the organisation. Probably, this student was not penalised because of being in the top management of the police. This observation was confirmed during the student interviews (e.g with Anele, in Chapter 5), who mentioned a motto used inside the organisation, known as ‘comply and complain later’. Students also mentioned that there is a ‘closed’ culture within the police. They were referring to the rules governing research permission. Students sometimes find it hard to get approval to conduct research because most of the information is ‘classified’. This is in line with Holdaway’s 1983 view (quoted in Adlam, 1999:57) ‘We, the police, have real knowledge; they, the public, do not have access to it.’

4.6.4 Managing academic studies

During my workshop facilitation, I talked about the need for postgraduate students, who are working full time and studying through an ODL institution, to manage time efficiently. When I talked about time management, students said that they did not have time for study. Their bosses want them to do the work, they work shifts, they have families, they fight with spouses over time, and they have pressures. These are typical demands that are experienced by mature students; however, they are made worse in

¹³As a police commissioner, this particular student was already very senior in the organisation. Within the police hierarchy, the highest position is that of the national commissioner of police; however, there are several commissioners who are at the level of provincial commissioners.

ODL because the postgraduate student does not leave the workplace or the home. The studies have to be done in the usual environment. This is a major challenge for the students because they have to perform many roles at the same time. It seems that the work and family survival has to take priority; the studies become the casualty as they end up receiving less attention.

4.6.5 Multilingualism and English as an additional language

There appears to be a constellation of challenges of academic literacies that have to do with the research literacies and English as an additional language (c.f. Section 2.1.3, Chapter Two). The workshop highlighted the challenges students face when writing in English as an additional language. For example: the challenge of one student was how to read many books and to put them into her own words. She asked me to help her specifically with how to integrate a quotation within a paragraph. As she was talking, she was pointing at her notebook, in which she had scribbled a lot of notes from readings. I found this scholarly, because the student was indeed taking notes. This was something I had not observed in my previous interactions with MTech students, especially in a few instances where as a language/academic support tutor I had sat in during sessions between supervisors and students. When I probed the student about what the problem was, I found that it had to do with reading strategies/reading skills, rephrasing the notes, and incorporating issues of interest into the writing. When I asked the student what her first language was, she mentioned that it was Venda, one of the official languages in the country. All the students in my sample spoke English as an additional language. As mentioned in Chapter Two, students who speak English as an additional language experience more challenges with academic literacies (Canagarajah, 2002, 2006). However, Canagarajah (2006) argues that the challenge is more to do with shuttling between contexts and discourses. I have found in my research that language, contexts and discourses are inseparable.

Students were also concerned about being shown how to quote and how to integrate quotations when writing the proposal. I spoke to one associate research professor in the department who said that the problem with the students is that they are failing to quote and then to provide a reason within the study. By this he meant that each paragraph that has a quotation needs to be followed by some kind of an elaboration. He even

demonstrated that this had to be done within a paragraph. He mentioned that he tells his students to include three sources in each paragraph. I found it ‘strange’ that he insisted that they should include three sources in each paragraph. This suggests that paragraph writing is important when writing the proposal, and that supervisors apply various pedagogies. It may also be important in teaching proposal writing at an ODL institution. In Chapter Seven, I explain how the teaching can be done.

It became clear from my informal discussions with the supervisors that students were struggling because English was not their first language. This made me realise the importance of focusing on the issue of English as an additional language for postgraduate students. The lack of proficiency in English contributes to the challenges that students experience with academic writing. This was discussed in Chapter Two, and I return to it in Chapter Six.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter began by reiterating the Lee et al. (2000) PWU hybrid curriculum model. In this research, this model is not used for designing curricula, but is used descriptively to portray the three contexts, namely professional, workplace and university. The police context is described as ‘semi-professional’; in contrast, the university environment is vocational, comprehensive and ODL. I then analysed the proposal-writing guidelines for the students in Tutorial Letter 101. My interpretation is that the Tutorial Letter attempts to find a balance between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge, as illustrated in the expectations of the supervisors of the ‘research problem’ and ‘Key Theoretical Framework’ in Tutorial Letter 101.

In the interview with one of the students, some of the challenges of ODL were highlighted, for example, the challenges of communication, and academic literacies. Interviews with the supervisors further illuminate my understanding of the PWU context for the subsequent discourse analysis in Chapters Five and Six. What was striking from the interviews was the absence of a focus on the profession in the PWU model. The supervisors included in this analysis emphasise the dominance of the workplace, for example Villa’s belief that the research problem in the proposal should be work-based. She mentions that such studies proceed faster and that the MTech is popular because it

is practice-based. She also explains the partnership agreements between the workplace and the university in terms of the ethics, and observes that at times permission can be denied for no apparent reason and that research findings may not be implemented, even though ‘supposedly’ work-based and practice-based. This suggests a strained or unequal power relationship between the workplace and the university.

Two of the supervisors, Menzi and Kgomotso, describe the police workplace subculture during the initial six months’ basic training and at the police stations. Menzi explains that the role of the police is to provide justice. He says that the police are trained to be different from civilians and that they tend to display this attitude in their academic writing. Menzi describes different workplace subcultures during the training and other subcultures at individual police stations. The main subculture is the ‘paramilitary’ subculture, which is also mentioned in the literature, for example Adlam (1999, 2002), Chan (1996), and White (2006). Kgomotso describes the police workplace organisation as anti-intellectual and anti-education. In Chapter Two, the improvement of qualifications is linked to professional development (Maxwell, 2003; San Miguel & Nelson, 2007). However, this is contradicted by the supervisors, who note that the police workplace ‘frustrates’ those who enrol for the MTech degree. When I probed the supervisors about the challenges with academic writing, they mentioned the absence of relevant textbooks for the students to use. One supervisor mentioned the need for information on the criminal justice system, the NPA, SAPS and the courts; this would be better suited to provide relevant examples of ‘knowledge domains’ that the students can learn from, rather than the current social science books which are available for students to use. This suggests that the discipline is identified with these legal institutions. Later, I demonstrate some of the legal discourses appropriated in students’ texts.

The participant observation of a workshop further revealed some of the tensions between the workplace and university. What struck me during the workshop was that it was largely meant to address research paradigms, but the students expected more help on academic writing. Some of the issues that surfaced during the participant observation related to the tenuous relationship between the workplace and university. For example, the conflict of knowledge between students located at the workplace and supervisors who have never had experience in the workplace. This revealed a conflict between supervisors who then rely on Mode 1 knowledge and not Mode 2 knowledge. In my

research, the complexity is within the workplace and university, not so much in the professional element, as was indicated in the literature, for example that of San Miguel and Nelson (2007).

In view of the goal of this chapter, which was to describe the sociocultural context, I summarise the three contexts in the following table:

Table 4.2: Characteristics of the PWU

Characteristics	(Semi) Profession	Workplace	University
Culture	The police have in the past used both military and civilian ranks, e.g. director instead of general. Paramilitary ranks – the military ranks are more enduring, and they seem to favour the ‘force’ nature of the police.	Subcultures – both the literature and my findings reveal police ‘workplace’ subcultures.	Requires academic criticism – through academic discourse practices such as reflection, critical consciousness etc.
Ethics	Ethics – SAPS has a code of ethics.	The use of the SAPS code of ethics, with a variation according to local stations within a province.	There are policies that the University has designed to regulate its professional staff. In addition, some academics belong to professional bodies and association both nationally and internationally.
Language	The use of professional jargon, and police language.	Workplace language – this appears to be at the level of terminology, styles, and genres.	Academic language – this is what students have to acquire in the university (as defined in Chapters 1 and 2).
Training	The police go through a mandatory six months basic training.	There is ongoing training at the police workplace.	Most professions require university education. Education and Training are separate things but can sometimes be integrated.
Improvement	Improvement – some positions, such as forensic analysts require improvement through qualifications.	Policies/laws/procedures – in the police some of the procedures for improving one’s position may not be transparent but they reside within the workplace. Promotion criteria which are unclear/ranks – the policies of promotion are not clear for the students in relation to whether qualifications count. Experience counts more.	Improvement – the nature of academia is improvement in a skill or expertise, regardless of what job position one is doing.

As mentioned in Chapter Two, it is difficult to separate the (P) and (W) when considering the police service. First, this is because some of the characteristics of ‘profession’ are shared by both the professional and workplace contexts. For example, training is conducted at a training centre, yet training is also found in the workplace.

Second, there were arguments raised in Chapter Two about why policing cannot be viewed as a typical profession.

The clash of values between the workplace and the university was discussed. While criticism is central to academic discourse, it is viewed negatively in the workplace. In a discussion with the students, I was made aware that criticism can lead to dismissal. Therefore, by not allowing criticism, improvement and professional development, the relationship between the three becomes stilted. Ultimately, the workplace draws certain boundaries which forbid the university or professional growth to be enhanced. This is perhaps because the police are led by politicians in South Africa and certain practices are kept within senior management and politicians (Chapter 2, c.f. Section 2.2.1). This means that the government appoints certain people in key positions and that education may not be relevant. In addition, the style of policing is also influenced by the ruling government. Attempts to harmonise or even negotiate the partnership between the university and the workplace for certain things are not accepted, as one of the supervisors highlighted above. This confirms the police attitudes towards civilians (Adlam 2002; Ryan 2008). Adlam (2002) outlines how what he calls a 'socio-biological elitist rationality' forms part of the leadership discourse which is part of the 'deep structure' of the police culture. Adlam (2002:25) argues that its core is that 'we, the police know best'. This study builds on Adlam (1999), not only by focusing on the cultural traits of the police workplace, but also by exploring how the workplace and professional practices influence the way students write. While Adlam 'reinforces' the boundaries between the university and the workplace by explaining the major differences between university education and the police professional practices, the PWU model depicts the transitions/and intersections. Chapters Five and Six uncover the tensions and discourse clashes in police students' proposals. I argue that these tensions and discourse clashes emanate from the intersections of the professional, workplace and university contexts, to be discussed in Chapter Five. This will be done by applying Fairclough's (1992, 2003) discourse analytical method.

Chapter Five

Tensions When Police Write Their Proposals: An Intertextual Exploration

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter Four, I described the sociocultural context by applying the PWU model to Tutorial Letter 101, interviews with supervisors and one student and workshop observation. In this chapter, I will use Fairclough's (1992, 2003) method of critical discourse analysis, consisting of three interdependent layers. I will apply some of the analytical concepts from CDA. Intertextuality is one of the tools from CDA which enabled me to explore and describe the intersection between police discourse practices and academic writing. Although this analysis is primarily based on an intertextual analysis, it will be informed by an ethnographic perspective, which was discussed in Chapter Three.

For the purpose of this linguistic analysis, I focus on six students: Rick, Sipho, Anele, Suresh, Maggie and Jabu. I compare similarities and differences between their proposals using CDA to answer the main research question: How do professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing postgraduate students intersect in the proposal? I use instances of intertextuality to illustrate the discourse clashes when students write the proposals. These instances are mainly taken from the key theoretical concepts (KTC) section, and from the literature review section of the proposals. The KTCs were chosen because they clearly illustrate the tensions between workplace and academic discourse. The way students formulate their KTCs illustrates strong Mode 2 knowledge (Gibbons et al., 1994), therefore tensions between workplace knowledge and academic knowledge are more obvious. The tension is the result of professional and workplace knowledge coming into contact with other aspects of research writing and academic discourse. The literature review shows some of the hybrid discourses that surface through instances of intertextuality and contribute to the discourse clashes between workplace subjectivities and academic subjectivities.

I start by giving brief profiles of the students. The profiles were reconstructed from my meetings, diary entries, and unstructured interviews with the students. Since Unisa is an ODL institution, I had to travel to Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth, and Rustenburg between 2010 and 2011. The meetings took place in offices (SAPS stations) and living rooms (homes). These profiles will provide background for the CDA analysis, especially the relationship between academic discourse practices and professional/workplace discourse practices. The following is a summary of the participants' profiles¹⁴ and some analysis.

5.2 Students' profiles

Rick

Research key words: *Crime threat analysis process*

He speaks Afrikaans as a first language, and English is his second language. Rick joined the Police Force (as it was called pre-1994) in 1988 as a student constable in Algoa Park police station in Port Elizabeth. He worked for six months and then went to college in Pretoria for another six months. He became a constable and was posted at the Port Elizabeth airport. He said it was special because his dress code had to be 'superb' to get posted at the airport. In his words, 'You must be very neat and clean. And your shoes must be polished, you must be from top of your head, you must be in a good, nicely way dressed and things like that.'

Rick then got transferred to other police stations around Port Elizabeth. He expressed that he 'wrote modules' to become promoted to sergeant in 1990, and after that he studied further to become inspector, (pre-1994, the promotion criteria of the police was standardised, in other words they got promoted on the basis of further studies). Rick is now a captain in one of the SAPS stations in Port Elizabeth. He prides himself on getting distinctions when doing the Diploma in Policing at the former Technikon Port Elizabeth, and getting another distinction when doing the BTech at the University of Pretoria. He said that he registered for the MTech because he would like to proceed to

¹⁴ Grammar has not been corrected in the verbatim transcriptions of students' interviews.

the DTech. He has been a captain for sixteen years. He complains about racism; 'Because they are promoting my juniors to become my senior. That I don't like.' Thus, he feels discontented because he has been at the same rank for the past 16 years.

Sipho

Research key words: *Handling of domestic violence cases*

Sipho's home language is Xhosa; he speaks English as an additional language. Sipho is a station commander in a small town situated in the Eastern Cape. He is the overseer of three sections. He said that these three were under 'his command' suggesting the command and control position that he holds. He reports to a cluster commander who is located at the provincial office of the Eastern Cape. He did his schooling in rural schools. He became a police official in 1991. In 1995 he registered at Unisa for the National Diploma in Policing; he then registered for the BTech, and in 2007 he registered for the MTech, which he completed in 2011. During the apartheid years he was employed by the Ciskeian police. The Ciskei¹⁵ police sent him to Hammanskraal for professional training. He said that he decided to do the MTech degree so that he could add value to his community and also develop himself:

'Because I wanted to do develop myself, and also it would add value to the community that I'm serving, because it means at least I'll be having background of the policing. Like for instance now, I have a background of the policing because I am a learned person, at least I am a well developed person.'

In his capacity as a station commander he writes quarterly feedback reports to the provincial cluster commander, and weekly reports to the cluster office about what he has been doing. He says he has to be assessed on these. He says he follows the formats and templates that are provided when writing these reports. (There is a known practice of following prescribed formats and templates in police workplace writing.)

¹⁵ Ciskei is one of the former apartheid administered Homelands designated to specific ethnic/racial groupings.

Anele

Research key words: *Combatting human trafficking*

Anele's home language is Xhosa and English is his additional language. Anele joined the police in the year 2000. He trained at the police college and then registered at Unisa. He is a warrant officer in the Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences Unit. He has been in this unit for four years. His duties are to attend to crime scenes, collect evidence, liaise with the court and the prosecutors, do the preliminary investigation at the crime scene, and follow the docket until it reaches the court. Describing his duties to me, he added;

'And one of the sole aims as an investigator is to do systematic search for the truth, which means it is to uncover the truth. Then you are the liaison officer between the victim of rape or of sexual assault or of child abuse, between the victim and the court, through the prosecutor obviously, because the prosecutor will present your case in court.'

His area of specialisation in the BTech was on the investigation of crime. He completed the MTech so that he could increase his chances of joining other companies such as security companies, NGOs, like Molo Songololo¹⁶ or even international organisations, like the International Organisation for Migration. His motivation for his studies seems to be to get out of SAPS (in other words, personal career plans). Besides being a police official, he has also contributed a number of poems written in isiXhosa to a poetry anthology. He stood up to fetch the book from his bedroom during our conversation in his living room. He has a (Xhosa) audience that he writes poetry, short stories and radio plays for, but this does not relieve his frustrations with the police. He feels that he cannot voice his ideas openly, for instance, he observed that,

'So far, it's not easy in the police. They tend to look at your rank more than anything else. And in the police they've got that mentality of thinking that the ideas have to come from the superior. But no, those are one of the reasons maybe

¹⁶ Molo Songololo is an NGO that seeks to combat human trafficking and promotes the rights of children who are abused.

you'll come up with, but unfortunately depending on your level of rank because seeing that I'm only the warrant officer, and nobody is saluting.'

This suggests the police culture and professional hierarchy.

Suresh

Research key words: *Incident management system*

Suresh speaks English as a first language and very little Afrikaans. He started as a paramedic after Matric and then joined the police. He has been in the police service for 18 years, having joined in 1994. He did his National Diploma in Policing at the former Technikon South Africa, he followed with the BTech and then later decided to do the MTech. He complained about the changes that were being made by the new provincial commissioner. He says they are under enormous pressure. His feelings were that Gauteng is a challenging province because it is the economic hub, and there are a lot of frustrating things. He says that they do not have a normal 7am-5pm workday, where they can go home and still have an hour or two to focus on their studies. It usually happens that they get called back at 6 pm to come to work and then they have to work until midnight. The reason for not studying in 2011 was because of the pressure from work. He intended to continue with his studies in 2012. He says he first registered in 2009. He did his proposal and it was accepted.

He informed me that they are subjected to a lot of discipline. The provincial commissioners brought him to the police station and he found that the station deals with a lot of crimes in the community. He complained that he gets insulted by his managers and accused of not doing his job, because the statistics for crime are still increasing. He has to work very long hours. That is what the management wants to see. He said that is why SAPS reverted to taking a more militaristic position, symbolised in the official military ranks. In his words, 'you can't be shooting people with rubber bullets when criminals are shooting with live ammunition'. This links up with the former police national commissioner Bheki Cele's 'shoot to kill' media campaign, and the 16 August 2012 killings of protesters at a mine in a place called Marikana.

Maggie

Research key words: *Curb asset theft (North West Mine)*

Maggie speaks Afrikaans and English. She is currently a senior security manager at North West Mine in the North West Province. When I interviewed Maggie, she was about to send her dissertation for editing and then submit it for examination. She joined the police in 1992 and spent 10 years in SAPS. She left the organisation when she was a captain in the Crime Intelligence Unit. After that, she moved to the Crime Information Centre of the police. At this centre, she started doing both qualitative and quantitative research and became familiar with research proposals. That is how she got interested in doing an MTech degree. She then joined the investigation unit and worked as a crime information profiler. She left that and did a research monograph with the Institute of Security Studies about the theft of precious metals from South African mines. One of the companies was North West Mine. She got intrigued with the mining industry. The mine then recruited her as an investigator and a profiler. The position was then developed into a full-blown division and she now heads the division. Therefore, during the time of my research, Maggie had already left the South African Police Service and joined North West Mine.

Jabu

Research Topic: *Leadership, performance, crime prevention*

Jabu is the head of Training based in one of the big SAPS stations in Port Elizabeth. Previously, he was in crime prevention. He has been with the police for thirty years (the oldest among the cohort that forms part of this research). He was in crime prevention for 24 years before moving to training. He joined the police in 1982, soon after Standard 10. In 1996, he started studying with the former Technikon South Africa for the National Diploma in Policing. In 2006, he did his BTech. He says in between he was doing (NQF) Level 4 and (NQF) Level 5 in Human Resource Management. I asked him about his reasons for studying Human Resources, and this is how he responded:

Because now it's more management orientated, if I can put it that way, in the police if you go to human resource that is the heart of our organisation. They are the people that really understand what is happening. As an ordinary policeman in the street, crime prevention official, you think that policing is about just running after people and all that. But now when you come into personnel or human resources, you suddenly realise that-ah-this running after people, it's only a small part of this thing.

When I asked him about why he was doing the MTech degree, he said it was to understand policing more and to motivate his children to get educated. He said qualifications do not count for promotion in the police, 'they look more on experience'. He told me that he was a lieutenant colonel. It was fascinating to hear him recount the ranks of the police:

It's a lieutenant colonel. So in the police you have...let's take the students also, you've got a student, and you've got a constable, you've got a sergeant, you've got a warrant officer, a lieutenant, you've got a captain, you've got a major, you've got a lieutenant colonel, that is my job, then you've got a colonel. Then from a colonel, you've got a brigadier. Brigadier, major general. Major general, lieutenant general, then a general.

Hearing him recount this made me realise the importance of ranks and positions within the police professional culture. (Jabu occupies the most senior rank, amongst the six from the SAPS).

The following table depicts some of the variables that may impact on the analysis of the students' writing.

Table 5.1: Students' profiles

Pseudonym	Gender	Race	Police rank	Year of joining police	Educational background
Rick	Male	White	Captain	1988	Police College, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing,
Anele	Male	Black	Warrant officer	2000	Police College, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing
Sipho	Male	Black	Station commander	1991	Police College, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing
Suresh	Male	Indian	Station commander	1994	Police College, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing
Maggie	Female	White	Former captain/current security manager	1992	B.A Psychology and Criminology, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing
Jabu	Male	Black	Lieutenant colonel	1982	Police College, National Diploma in Policing, BTech Policing, Human Resource Management

These profiles are helpful in deepening my analysis and in understanding the individual and collective police professional procedures and cultures that intersect with students' academic discourses. For example, Maggie emphasised the issue of ethics during the interview by citing that she would prefer no mention of the actual name of the mining company that she worked for. Even though her own MTech research was also based on the mine, she was not prepared to reveal the identity of the company. Sipho also raised the question of ethics when I was arranging the interview with him. Early in the

interview he wanted to know what steps I took to ensure ethical representation of him as a participant. I explained and also showed him the consent forms which he signed. Jabu mistook me for a fellow classmate on the phone until I fully explained the interview process to him. I also got to know about the individual status of the studies during the interviews. For example, Rick and Anele suspended their studies after the proposal was accepted due to financial reasons. It was not clear if Rick was going to continue with his studies, but Anele reassured me that he wanted to proceed to the dissertation. This made me realise the usefulness of focusing on the proposal, as some students may not proceed to writing the dissertation.

Both the profiles and the table foreground commonalities and differences among the students. They give an indication of the racial mix amongst the students, and the years in which each of them joined the police. This is significant because it depicts the socio-political changes, pre- and post-1994. South Africa held its first democratic elections in 1994, after decades of colonialism and apartheid. The profiles also highlight the individual educational backgrounds, and the difficulties experienced by the students in trying to balance their professional commitments with their studies. For instance, Rick seems to have hit the promotional 'ceiling' as a captain and is complaining about racism standing in the way of his aspirations.

In some of the profiles the military ranks and hierarchies of the police as semi-professionals are presented. For example, Jabu informed me about the 16 or so ranks that he has to go through to be at the top of the seniority hierarchy in the police, and Anele complained that he is a warrant officer and not a captain, and therefore his 'ideas' cannot be taken seriously in the police. Adlam (2002:27) argues that the 'socio-biological elitist rationality draws its energy from the idea that small numbers of people are simply 'wired-up' as a result of biological heritage, 'breeding', cleverness and mental adroitness, to be rulers and leaders.' Among the profiles outlined above, Anele represents the lower end of the ladder while Jabu is at the top end of the ladder. The two policemen's positions and outlook towards their studies confirm Adlam's (2002:33) argument that 'the prevalence of these modes of governance in police organizations continues to fuel the skepticism shown by police subordinates towards their superordinates and nourishes the gap between the different dramaturgical worlds of 'street cops' and 'management cops'. Jabu expresses it aptly as 'this running after

people,’ when he denigrates some of the lower rank police duties in favour of ‘managerialism’. This illustrates some of the attitudes found in police culture.

5.2.2 Analysis of students’ proposals

The section below contains a linguistic analysis of the student’s proposals. As mentioned in Chapter Four, all the students include a section on key theoretical concepts (KTC) in their proposals (c.f. Section 4.2.4). However, as illustrated in the analysis that follows, the students do not indicate how the KTCs relate to the proposal as a whole, and how they provide the research ‘theoretical’ underpinnings of the proposal. Firstly, I argue that workplace concepts are used in the proposal without a theoretical research significance (c.f. Chapter 2, on Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge), as suggested in Tutorial Letter 101, and in the literature on academic discourse and research writing. Secondly, I argue that certain discourse types (e.g. investigative and professional discourses) are intertextually and interdiscursively borrowed from the workplace and in the process cause ‘lines of tensions’ with academic discourse, and hybridity. The KTCs used are illustrative of tensions; in addition, the students’ literature reviews in the MTech proposals illustrate to me, as an applied linguist trying to make sense of the discourse practices, how these can result in discourse clashes. I then describe how hybridity surfaces in the students’ writing, in order to build on this in Chapter Six. All the students follow the guidelines in Tutorial Letter 101; the format of a proposal usually has recognisable and typical sub-headings, as discussed in the theory and context chapters (c.f. Chapters Two and Four, respectively). The KTCs are included in the first section of the proposal (e.g. Maggie’s proposal), which is then followed or preceded by either the introduction or the background.

5.3 Tensions between workplace (operational) concepts and academic discourse

The first research subject whose KTCs I will analyse is Sipho. Sipho outlines his KTCs on page 3 of his proposal. The three theoretical concepts defined under Sipho’s KTCs are ‘cluster’, ‘domestic violence’, and ‘domestic relationship’ (I only focus on cluster below). These appear to be concepts borrowed from the workplace and the student does not indicate how they are relevant to the study. The excerpt on the concept of ‘cluster’ is reproduced as an illustration below:

5.1 Extract from Sipho's proposal:

Cluster

According to English Oxford Dictionary (Hornby 1985) a cluster is a number of persons, animals, objects, etc in a small, close group. This study will focus on four stations that are grouped together under an accounting station which is Alice hence the 'Alice cluster'. The four stations are Middledrift, Fort Beaufort, Keiskammahoek and Alice and they are geographically close to each other and the advantage is that they can easily come together and jointly fight crime (page 3, Sipho's proposal).

'Cluster' as defined above is an example of manifest intertextuality and is a policing geographic demarcation concept, rather than a key theoretical concept. This term is widely used by the police for the purposes of grouping police stations. Sipho refers to a definition from the English Oxford Dictionary. He then gives the context, which he alludes to as the 'Alice Cluster'. It is not clear how it will become a 'key theoretical (research) concept' which is relevant to the proposed study.

All three theoretical terms are workplace-based in this proposal. This is because the topic comes from the police working environment. In my experience of teaching research writing, one would have expected to see something in this section relating to research paradigms, abstract ideas, or the theory versus practice division, as the heading Key Theoretical Concepts in a research proposal might suggest in social scientific academic discourse. Therefore, the context of the use of 'cluster' and the other terms raises tensions with the theoretical framing of the research proposal, something which I later probe in my interview with the student and the supervisor.

The next student to illustrate tension is Anele. Anele is a warrant officer whose research is on the investigation of human trafficking. Anele starts by borrowing from Tutorial Letter 101 (although this is incorrectly referenced as Unisa (2009:36) and from a research textbook by Creswell (2003):

5.2 Extract from Anele's proposal:

According to Unisa (2009:36) the definition of key concepts is necessary to identify related research and to place the current research project within a

conceptual and theoretical context. Researchers define terms in order to assist readers to understand what they precisely mean. This is done particularly if the reader is not familiar with the particular field of study of the researcher (Creswell, 2003:143).

Pimp

According to Oxford (2006:1099) a pimp is a man who controls prostitutes and lives on the money that they earn.

According to Koen (2009:22) Pimps benefit from trafficking in children in that they usually end up with the money, which the child makes through being sexually exploited, (page 7, Anele's proposal).

In the first sentence, 'according to Unisa (2009:36)...' Anele borrows from what is stated in Tutorial Letter 101. However, the reference to Unisa should have been to the name of the course, POL501M or to the authors of the Tutorial Letter, according to the reference guide that students received. He uses the word 'according to' three times in order to signal authorship or source of ideas. The repetition of the instructions from Tutorial Letter 101 constitute an intertextual chain (Fairclough 1992), taken from the guidelines and books that the students are given. What is significant is why Anele reproduces the injunction from the Tutorial Letter in his proposal. In general, students seem eager to repeat 'verbatim' or to demonstrate that they have understood the meaning and requirements of each subsection of the proposal, before going onto the necessary explanation of a 'key theoretical concept'.

The KTC 'Pimp' does not feature in the remainder of the subsections in Anele's proposal. This casts some doubt over the relevance of this term as a KTC. As students attempt to discuss the 'key theoretical concepts', there is a tendency to focus on 'operational definitions', rather than the more theoretical, as required in the instructions in Tutorial Letter 101. In choosing KTCs in a humanities proposal, which is my discipline, one would expect such terms to have a bearing on the theoretical or conceptual underpinnings of the rest of the study, namely Mode 1 knowledge.

In Rick's proposal below it is unusual that the name of a municipal entity (Nelson Mandela Metro area) and the name of the organisation (South African Police Service (SAPS)) form part of his KTCs.

5.3 Extract from Rick's proposal:

4.7. Nelson Mandela Metro area (NMM).

The Nelson Mandela Metro area practices social Justice in a culture of public participation guided by an efficient, accountable, non-racial, non sexist and sustainable municipality that focus on suitable environment, social and economic development, improving the quality of life of its communities in a secured, safe and tourist friendly environment. Integrated Development Plan, (2002:1). The following crime types within the Nelson Mandela Metro City area are normally associated with organised crime: drug trafficking, fraud-related crimes (including corruption and money laundering), theft of motor vehicles, robbery of motor vehicles (carjacking), other robberies (i.e. bank robberies and cash-in-transit robberies), stock theft, illicit dealing in firearms, gold, diamonds, emeralds, and abalone trafficking. All crime analysts in the Nelson Mandela Metro City area will be informed by means of official circulars as to which crime types are normally associated with organised crime. Crime analysts can then align their focus and render a more effective and efficient service. Providing the latter with crime analysis findings, derived from the CTA process, pertaining to possible organised crime related incidences for crime detection purposes.

4.8. South African Police Service (SAPS)

Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 prescribes the core functions of the SAPS as follows: the objects of the police service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law. Thus, one can conclude that the design, intent and outcomes of the CTA process complement or coincide with the core functions of the SAPS pertaining to the prevention and detection of crime. The SAPS also adopted and integrated crime analysis units into the mainstream of policing during 1994. With the limited and even decreasing resources available for policing increasing crime incidents, police management in general is currently relying more on crime analysis findings to guide the decision-making process within crime management. SAPS (2002c:2). (page 5, Rick's proposal)

Whilst it may be useful for Rick's study to group the types of crimes within the metro, it is interesting that the name of the Metro (Municipality) is presented as a KTC, more so because Rick uses a municipal strategic planning document as his source, namely the Integrated Development Plan. As his second KTC, Rick defines SAPS by drawing from the Constitution of South Africa. The underlined section of the extract is taken from the constitution verbatim, as an example of manifest intertextuality, but Rick does not use quotation marks. See extract from the Constitution below:

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

205. Police service

3. The objects of the police service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law.

The Constitution is used, together with a SAPS strategic document. Rick describes the constitutional mandate of SAPS. Both the Nelson Mandela Metro and SAPS provide the context of the research and should not be KTCs. In this case, legal and strategic documents are borrowed from government and SAPS. SAPS is an institution established by the state, its role is encapsulated in the Constitution.

I have described how Sipho borrows the word 'cluster' from the workplace, and Anele borrows from Tutorial Letter 101 and uses the dictionary to define the term 'pimp', although it is not a theoretical definition that is presented. Rick borrows terms from the Constitution and from municipal documents. It appears that the students are borrowing workplace terms and representing them as KTCs. These are typically Mode 2 knowledge concepts as they emanate from practice. The sources used are for example, a dictionary, the tuition guide, a municipal document, a SAPS strategic document, and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. These are instances of manifest intertextuality because the students draw directly, and sometimes copy or 'plagiarise' the borrowed text. These terms are an illustration of 'knowledge in action' and represent a shift towards Mode 2 knowledge in the discipline.

I now explain how Suresh engages with this part of the proposal. Suresh gives only one KTC, namely Incident Management:

5.4 Extract from Suresh's proposal:

INCIDENT MANAGEMENT:

According to the Guideline Document by SANRAL (2005 :9) Incident Management is the process whereby a set of co-ordinated activities is initiated in order to minimise the direct and secondary effects of an incident, as well as to restore normal capacity and safety levels to all affected road facilities as quickly as possible. Stanway (1995 :1) defines Incident Management as a preplanned, agreed set of procedures and protocols activated when an incident occurs. It co-ordinates the responses of all Emergency Services to the scene of an incident and provides a mechanism for efficiently managing the scene of an incident. Its aim is to clear the road of any obstruction and to restore traffic flow to normal as quick as possible.

If these two definitions are taken into account, it can be said that Incident Management promotes co-operation and positive communication between multi-disciplinary response teams involved with the management of major incidents. (page 5 and 6, Suresh's proposal).

References

SANRAL, 2005. *Guideline Document. Road Incident Management System*, Pietermaritzburg : Good Fellows.

STANWAY, E. 1995 GUIDELINE PLAN. *Freeway Incident Management*, Kwa-Zulu Natal Department of Transport.

This concept appears to be a term used by police and emergency services in response to accidents that occur on the Gauteng highways. The sources that have been used for the definitions both come from government agencies, namely SANRAL and Kwazulu-Natal Department of Transport. Both sources are workplace based. It is interesting to note that the student did not include a literature review in his proposal. When I asked him why, he stated that there was no literature in the field. This indicates the dilemma that students find themselves in with having to describing KTCs, when they claim that there is no relevant literature in the field. Work-based research appears to have limited literature sources to draw on. Perhaps the academics in the discipline are not mediating the knowledge process properly for these students. Suresh's description is not in line

with the expectations of the supervisors, as stated in Tutorial Letter 101, for example using a conceptual or theoretical definition, and an operational definition.

The last two students, Maggie and Jabu, have been grouped together because they differ from the other four students, in the sense that Maggie demonstrates more ‘meta-awareness’ of the proposal genre and Jabu approaches the KTCs in a deeper theoretical and practical manner. Maggie gives three KTCs: Crime prevention, Theft, and Mine property.

5.5 Extract from Maggie’s proposal:

Crime prevention (pro-active approach) – Anderson and Brown (2005: 2) stated that crime reduction and crime prevention are essentially the same thing - combinations of actions designed with the purpose to eliminate and/or minimize the occurrence of crime and the harm associated with it. The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was billed as a holistic national strategy for reducing crime in South Africa during 1996. It emerged from the deliberations and research of a multi-disciplinary team of experts from the state and civil society tasked with establishing a long-term strategy to focus the state's attention on addressing the root causes of crime in the country. This was premised on the understanding that to effectively reduce crime, a pro-active approach that included, but went beyond, the criminal justice system, was required. The primary crime prevention strategy focuses on a range of environmental factors that can lead to crime occurring. Examples of such initiatives include simple target hardening (i.e. the use of locks), environmental design (i.e. street lighting) and urban renewal. (Newham, 2005: 1-4) The South African Government provided a broad new description of crime prevention, encompassing all activities that can reduce, deter or prevent the incidence of crime in the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security. For the purpose of this report, crime prevention will be considered to include all three focus areas of crime reduction defined by the South African Government namely, altering the environment in which crime occur; changing the conditions which are considered to cause crime and providing a strong deterrent against crime with an effective criminal justice system.

Theft – According to Snyman (1986: 511) theft can be defined as the unlawful and intentional removal of movable property belonging to another.

Mine property (assets) - For the purpose of this report, the participating mine provided the following definition for mine property: “any movable economic resource owned by the participating mine from which any future economic benefits may be obtained, including cash, equipment, tools, etc.” (Obtained from the Manager of the Crime Information department). (page 1, Maggie’s proposal)

Maggie’s KTCs are different from the other four students in the sense that she has a deeper understanding of theory and research. This is evident in the way in which she explains crime prevention, a term that comes from the workplace. She uses sources from policing science (Mode 1), e.g Anderson and Brown (2005:2), and Newman (2005:1-4). She also uses government political sources, such as the National Crime Prevention Strategy and the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security. The term ‘mine property’ is taken from the workplace, a mining company, where she currently works after leaving the SAPS. This definition of the KTC is clearly borrowed from her workplace, and perhaps there would not be a need to expand it to its theoretical significance beyond its operational significance at this stage of the proposal. It seems that though Maggie borrows from her workplaces, (the mine and the state), she is better able to integrate these terms when writing her proposal than the other four students mentioned above. She uses both literature from the workplace and from academic research to situate or theorise her study.

The last student, Jabu, a lieutenant colonel from PE and a head of Training who is interested in human resource management is slightly different from the first four students. He is more similar to Maggie, although he has his own way of approaching this section of the proposal. He has the longest KTC section of all the students. He also gives extended definitions, with short reviews covering about a page on each KTC; in total he mentions five KTCs. These are crime, crime prevention, communication, community participation, and leadership (covering three pages). He covers concepts from both leadership (management) theory and policing theoretical concepts. Jabu does this in the following extract (Due to the length of his terms, I will only focus on one):

5.6 Extract from Jabu’s proposal:

CRIME PREVENTION

According to Van Vuuren (1993:372) , the police and the community have lived in separate worlds for too long , with no appreciation of shared responsibility. He further states that it is necessary to realize that the police cannot be held solely responsible for the high rate of crime. Individuals within the community cannot expect too much from the police while they continue to ignore their role in the prevention of crime . However , it is the duty of the police to ensure that an environment is created for community involvement .

Snyman (1988:78) , sees crime prevention as the wide range of proactive and reactive activities directed at offenders and victims , and at the social and physical environment that commence before or after the commission of a crime .

Faust in Naude and Stevens (1988:13) , describes the phases of crime prevention as follows :

- Primary crime prevention , which timeously identifies conditions in the physical environment that create opportunities for criminal activities .
- Secondary crime prevention , which aims at the timeous identification of potential offenders in order to prevent future criminal behaviour .
- Tertiary crime prevention , which concentrates on actual criminals with the aim of preventing further criminal behaviour .

From the above definitions , it is clear that a strong partnership between the police and the community is required in order to ensure the maintenance of order . The police being the active partner which is paid to do a job which is actually the responsibility of each individual , while the community, on the other hand , is the passive partner which is responsible firstly for its own safety and secondly , for helping and supporting its active partner , the police. It is also clear that no crime prevention effort can be effective without proper internal as well as external communication with all role players. (page 7, Jabu's proposal)

From the extract above, it can be seen that Jabu has chosen to focus on research studies about the concept of 'crime prevention'. He has read several sources on this concept, (Van Vuuren, 1993:372, and Snyman, 1988:78). He seems not to have used his

workplace documents, like the SAPS strategic documents or documents from the Department of Safety and Security (which was responsible for the National Crime Prevention Strategy in 1995 and 1996). He first establishes the rationale for the concept, in other words, why it is necessary, and then defines and describes it. In the last paragraph he attempts to apply this concept to his own research in the police. This is different from the way the other students (except Maggie) discussed their KTCs.

Jabu seems to have moved towards an interpretation of the KTCs which is in accordance with Tutorial Letter 101. It seems that what Jabu and Maggie (to a certain extent) are doing is selecting similar KTCs to the other students. However, they deal with them more theoretically and analytically by drawing on academic, as well as workplace, readings. Maggie draws from local, international, and workplace literature, while Jabu attempts to engage with theoretical debates and to treat this section of the proposal as a short literature review on the theoretical concepts of his research. In Chapter Six, I will compare and contrast Maggie with one student who is still based within SAPS.

The four students: Rick, Anele, Sipho and Suresh borrow KTCs from the workplace. These are operational policing concepts, which are borrowed without reference to the research and theoretical relevance within their studies. This is in line with Mode 2 knowledge. Gibbons et al. (1994:3-8), among others, discuss the attributes of knowledge production by distinguishing between Mode 1 and Mode 2. In Mode 2 knowledge, attributes are produced in the context of application, transdisciplinarity, heterogeneity and organisational diversity, social accountability and reflexivity, and quality control. Mode 2 knowledge is intended to be useful to someone, whether in industry or in government, or society. Gibbons et al. (1994:11) assert that this is essential because scientific and technological knowledge production is no longer the preserve of universities, but is also pursued in industry and government laboratories, in think-tanks, research institutions and consultancies, etc. Rick, Anele, Sipho and Suresh are involved in technical policing functions, (e.g warrant officer, captain, station commander) unlike Maggie and Jabu, who are interested in mine security and in human resources (management).

I now focus on other instances of intertextuality to describe the discourse clashes in the proposals.

5.4 Hybridity: discourse mixing in the literature review of the proposal

In writing their literature reviews, some students borrowed both intertextually and interdiscursively from a range of sources. Borrowing from other sources provides evidence of further tensions and discourse clashes to me as an academic literacies researcher.

Below, I present excerpts from the police students' proposals as examples of hybridity. The excerpts reveal aspects of professional identity and power relations. In writing about the process of conducting a literature review, Anele displays a mixture of discourses in the literature review by mixing 'self-help' advice books on literature reviews with academic discourse [Sentences have been numbered using S.1 to S.10, and underlining has been used to symbolize my emphasis or as an example of the analytical concepts]:

5.7 Extract from Anele's proposal:

Preliminary literature review

(S1) The most common problem when starting a literature review seems to be the identification of relevant sources (Bless & Higson-Smith; 2000:20). (S2) But the problem stated by Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:20) and Welman and Kruger (2001:33) provide an answer when they say that the first step to take in tracing relevant literature on a particular topic, is to list the headings or keywords under which it may be classified in a library catalogue or in a computer retrieval system. (S3)The researcher has followed this advice by Welman and Kruger (2001:33) by exactly looking at the library catalogue in search of information he considers necessary for his research topic. (S4)The researcher has put more emphasis on reading the works of the previous researchers such as Molo Songololo, Kempen and the IOM who have written a lot about human trafficking. (S5)The researcher has done a thorough search by using keywords with relevance to the chosen topic. (S6)Those keywords are the following: [.....missing text]. (S7)The researcher has visited the website of the International organization for migration and have acquired a lot of information that will be utilised in this research and has also acquired some information from the Herald reporters on the articles they have written on human

trafficking but their names could not be written as they did not give written permission that allows me to use their names in this research. (S8)The researcher is currently having talks with the South African Broadcasting Corporation to see if they cannot sell him the series that they have broadcasted on 30-11-2004 entitled “Operation Priscilla” which deals with human trafficking on Special Assignment and also the series broadcasted on 23-10-2007 entitled “Soul Trade” on Special Assignment.[.....missing text].

(S9)The researcher is very much concerned about those exaggerations that were made with regard to the speculations made before the world cup and the findings of the research conducted after the world cup in Germany as we are about to host the Fifa 2010 world cup and the speculations are already running high that “human trafficking activities will increase during the 2010 World Cup” (IOM, 2009:1)._ (S10)What is of concern to the researcher is that people who know about the findings of the research conducted immediately after 2006 Fifa World Cup might takes things lightly expecting that those speculations could still be unrealistic and just exaggeration of things. (page 12-15, Anele’s proposal)

The first three sentences in the excerpt above show manifest intertextuality of two books: Bless & Higson-Smith (2000), the title of which is *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective* and Welman and Kruger (2001), whose book is entitled *Research Methodology: for the Business and Administrative Sciences*. A quick perusal of the books shows that they discuss social science research methods, and they include advice on how to search literature, the purpose of the literature review, and reviewing techniques. The literature review above can be described as evidence seeking and investigative; the researcher has searched the ‘self-help literature’ (Kamler and Thomson, 2006:1) on writing a literature review and reports on it. In S3 above, Anele, who refers to himself as ‘The researcher’, links this to the ‘advice’ function/ self-help literature. For example:

The researcher has followed this advice by Welman and Kruger (2001:33) by exactly looking at the library catalogue in search of information he considers necessary for his research topic.

It seems as if the student is interested in demonstrating to the audience that he knows how one does a literature search. In S1 to S8, Anele describes his methodology of compiling the literature review (information retrieval), see example below (S4):

The researcher has put more emphasis on reading the works of the previous researchers such as Molo Songololo, Kempen and the IOM who have written a lot about human trafficking.

These are organisations involved in human trafficking. For example, Molo Songololo is a registered child rights organisation, established in 1979. I argue that it is about the procedure or the steps followed when conducting the literature search, for example, the use of a 'key word search' found in S5 above, and the websites that were visited. This procedural and methodical introduction of the literature review is borrowing a discourse convention 'intertextually' from self-help literature on research methods and applying it.

In sentence 8, Anele describes his communication with the South African Broadcasting Commission to try and procure programme content on human trafficking. This indicates the investigative role of the police as stated in the Constitution. It also relates to Anele's function as a warrant officer, whose job is to gather evidence to be used by the prosecutor in court. In her analysis of writing and identity, Ivanic (1998) points to three authorial positions taken up by writers. It seems that what is manifested in this section of Anele's text is the 'self as author' (Clark & Ivanic, 1997). Ivanic (1998:28) asserts that 'clashes between writers' autobiographical identities and institutionally supported subject positions have the potential to contribute to changing the possibilities for self-hood available in the future'. For example, Anele, as a warrant officer in SAPS, is involved in gathering evidence and investigating crimes for the purpose of prosecution. He is aware of the asymmetrical power of the criminal justice system, and assumes that when writing the literature review, he should go into details in his review about the procedures involved in compiling a review.

He therefore borrows from professional procedural discourses that are not typically included in academic discourse. This discourse intersects with academic discourse. Therefore, it is the writer as investigator (or warrant officer) who narrates the procedure he employs in doing a literature review. This intertextual chain is an indication of the power and identity that is derived from the workplace, which causes the student to focus

on his policing ‘self’ at the expense of the academic discourse. Policing is about the embodied or lived experiences of individuals (c.f. Chapter Four, interviews with supervisors). As a warrant officer, an investigator, Anele is aware of his police rank, and therefore the need to follow professional procedures.

A similar phenomenon of an instructional procedure appears in Rick’s literature review section below. Derewianka (1990: 27) asserts that ‘instructions belong to a group of text-types concerned with procedures, which tell us how something is accomplished through a sequence of actions or steps.’ Martin and Rose (2008) observe that procedures teach the reader how to perform a specialised sequence of activities in relation to certain objects and locations. The exert from Rick’s writing is not as lengthy as Anele’s, but the propositions in the paragraph carry similar functions, which can be seen through the use of modality [Sentences have been numbered and imperative verbs have been underlined]:

5.8 Extract from Rick’s proposal:

Literature review

(S1)De Vos (1998:90), a variety of sources, namely, official documents, records, manuals, directives of the SAPS, academic and law enforcement journals, books, articles, and information published on the Internet, is employ during this study. (S2)Include aspects about analysis crime in the Nelson Mandela Metro area, in South-Africa and in the SAPS, using all the literature that is available in the SAPS and other research. (S3)De Vos (1998:90) mention that the analysis and interpretation of written material offer distinctive challenges which enable the qualitative researcher to collect data which could not otherwise have become available. (S4)Describes and outlines the concept of crime analysis, the purpose and standards set for crime analysts, the prerequisite requirements and the key performance areas set for crime analysts, the crime analysis process, sources of crime information, the different types of crime analysis in policing, interpretation of data in crime analysis, the application and outcomes of the CTA process, and a comparison between the core functions of the SAPS and the objectives of the CTA process. (S5)The CTA process was, accordingly, a national instruction, issued by the National Crime Combating Forum (NCCF) (reference number 29/2002), subsequently suspended at national, provincial and area police levels (excluding police station level), mainly due to the inability of crime analysts to apply the CTA process as originally intended (SAPS, 2002a:1) **(sic)** (S6)The CTA process was designed, introduced and implemented in the SAPS in 1998 (SAPS,

2000:2). (page 8, Rick's proposal).

In the extract above, the introductory sentence to the literature review section of Rick's proposal starts with an explanation from a book by De Vos (1998) titled *Research at Grass Roots: A Primer for the Caring Professions*. The second sentence (S.2) does not come from the book, and sounds like an instruction, directive or imperative from the student's research:

Include aspects about analysis crime in the Nelson Mandela Metro area, in South-Africa and in the SAPS, using all the literature that is available in the SAPS and other research.

There are similarities in the writing of Anele's and Rick's literature reviews. Rick begins the literature review with a citation from a research methods book, followed by an instruction in the form of a sentence that functions as an imperative. Imperatives are normally used for issuing commands, or demanding goods and services (Halliday, 1994). Rick uses the timeless present, and the imperative tense without a subject. Rick, as a police captain, sounds like the captain in command, who is issuing orders of what to include in the literature review.

Rick's use of non-agentive, timeless imperatives contributes to or positions the reader in an asymmetrical power relationship, where a member of the police (in this case a captain) has more power. This aspect of power was also demonstrated during my interview with Rick in his office at the SAPS station in the Eastern Cape, when he showed me a letter he had written about a police official, who had not taken a proper statement when a victim of rape came to report an incident at the police station. He showed me a memo, in which he had recommended that disciplinary action should be taken against the police official. The use of modality in the case of Rick's writing is an illustration of the power and authority that is typical of the organisation of SAPS.

The next sentence (S.3) is referenced and is not a quote. It is as if the student is telling the reader the procedure or method. Three ideas are integrated in this section of the literature review: there is information about how to conduct a literature search, the writing procedure of the literature review, and the actual content/knowledge about crime threat analysis. This seems to be a hybridisation of the discourse of police professional instructional procedures and literature on 'how to write' a literature review. Sentence 4

appears to be declarative, in that it is written in the third person, but lacks a subject. After drawing from the workplace discourse, the citation comes at the end of sentence 5 and sentence 6:

The CTA process was, accordingly, a national instruction, issued by the National Crime Combating Forum (NCCF) (reference number 29/2002), subsequently suspended at national, provincial and area police levels (excluding police station level), mainly due to the inability of crime analysts to apply the CTA process as originally intended (SAPS, 2002a:1) The CTA process was designed, introduced and implemented in the SAPS in 1998 (SAPS, 2000:2).

This happens later in the paragraph; it is preceded by the procedural details of conducting a literature review and the use of the animated voice of the captain in command. According to Bakhtin (1981:293–294):

The word in language is half someone else's. It becomes "one's own" only when the speaker populates it with his own intention, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention. Prior to this moment of appropriation, the word does not exist in a neutral and impersonal language (it is not after all, out of a dictionary that the speaker gets his words!), but rather it exists in other people's mouths, in other people's contexts, serving other people's intentions: it is from there that one must take the word, and make it one's own.

In this case the student appears to ventriloquate 'words' from his workplace position, indicating that 'the word in language' is mobile in the sense that what is used in the workplace is transferred to academic discourse. This can be described as voice in academic writing. Ivanic and Camps (2001:3) argue that writers may, through the linguistic and other resources they choose to draw upon in their writing, ventriloquate a combination of an infinite number of voice types. Voice is a key feature that contributes to hybridity. What is interesting in the extract above, and indeed in the preceding extract by Anele, is that he and Rick return to the literature, after imitating both police and academic discourses in the introductory sections of their literature reviews.

Based on the two extracts above from Rick and Anele, it is evident that the literature review is one of the sites where discourse clashes are manifested. Discourse clashes can

be seen in the use of how to write the proposal drawn from ‘self-help’ literature, and in the telling of a personal journey of how one went about searching for literature sources, and of how ‘the researcher’, who is influenced by a policing professional identity, compiled the literature review. In Chapter Six, the data suggests that this is a discourse clash between the policing identity of giving instructions through explaining, defining for the audience and at the same time having to master the conventions of writing a literature review. In sentence 2 of Rick’s excerpt, there are no agents or subjects. One can infer that the actor/agent is the researcher or the literature review. If it is referring to the researcher, this would reveal the stronger policing identity and if it is referring to the literature review, it would still be suggesting that the writer is more concerned with telling the audience how to compile a literature review. Either way, this introductory part of the literature review seems to have a number of intertextual positionings (such as the police captain and the student writer) related to policing identities, and self-help literature on academic writing in the social sciences.

Unlike Anele and Rick, Maggie displays a different type of intertextuality in her literature review. Interdiscursively, her literature review resembles a professional, PowerPoint presentation. It is strange that there is no manifest intertextuality in the extract below. One would expect a literature review to consist of plenty of that.

5.9 Extract from Maggie’s proposal:

6.2.1 Literature Review

Crime prevention models, crime risk reduction models and crime management strategies available in the following fields will be included in the literature review:

- Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
- Situational crime prevention
- Community-based crime prevention

Both local and international sources will be examined to find common ‘best practices’ in the aforementioned fields (page 5, Maggie’s proposal)

Maggie's literature review section is the shortest literature review of the six students. It is written in point form, as if it were a PowerPoint presentation. She notes the topics of the review, e.g. 'crime prevention models', and then uses three bullets to suggest point-form presentation. Maggie then animates the voice of the lecturer or guidelines, e.g. 'both local and international sources will be examined', following advice in Tutorial Letter 101 and from the supervisor (c.f. Chapter 4) that students should consult both local and international sources. The 'point-form' presentation style could be a sign of an interdiscursive mix. There is no reference to any readings. Maggie only provides headings or themes; in the last sentence she mentions the literature search. Maggie displays a stronger professional writing identity than did the other students. Maggie's excerpt is also procedural by explaining what will be done in the literature review. By describing the 'voice' and 'style', I uncover the hybridity. In Chapter Two, I explained how academic writers can use hybridity for strategic purposes. This will be a central issue in chapter Six, when I discuss in detail Maggie's recontextualisation of both professional and academic discourse practices in her proposal.

Unlike Maggie, Sipho begins the literature review by defining and explaining the process of conducting a literature search. He combines a policing and an academic identity. When the literature review begins, Sipho starts by justifying why he is doing the literature review:

5.10 Extract from Sipho's proposal:

Literature Review

The importance of literature in scientific research cannot be over emphasized. According to Mouton (2001:86), the term literature review does not encapsulate all that was intended to be conveyed by the term. Mouton (2001:86), indicated that, when embarking on a research, one of the first aid should be to find out what has been done in your field of study. He further stated that the starting point should be to review existing scholarship or available body of knowledge to see how other scholars have investigated the research problem that you are interested in. The interest of the researcher is not merely on literature, but in the body of the accumulated scholarship.

This means that the researcher wants to learn from others how they have explained and conceptualized on issues, what they have found practically, what tools they have used

and to what effect. In a nutshell, the researcher is interested in the most recent, believable and relevant scholarship in his or her area of interest. This literature review will examine the key terms and how they relate to the research topic. The key terms that the researcher will be looking for are articles that are collected for service delivery by SAPS members to the public in relation to complaints about domestic violence, and reluctance to report domestic violence cases by victims. (page 9 and 10, Siphos proposal)

In the first paragraph, there is manifest intertextuality through the reference to Mouton's book, *How to Succeed In Your Masters and Doctoral Studies*, also an advice book. This source has been borrowed verbatim without any quotations. This is a 'self-help' book that has been widely used by postgraduate students in South Africa. It is written to advise students about research writing, in other words, 'how to write'. Siphos includes this information as a way of introducing his literature review. The second paragraph continues explaining the importance of a literature review in a more personalised way, associating the literature with the 'self' or the policing 'self'. In paragraph 2, line 4 (underlined), Siphos describes the procedure he will use to conduct his literature search; 'This literature review will examine the key terms and how they relate to the research topic.' This is similar to that of Anele and Rick, when they write about how to conduct a literature search.

Siphos first two paragraphs are written to inform the reader that he understands what a literature review is, and he knows the procedure that he will follow when conducting the literature search. For instance, he refers to 'key terms' that will be used. Students are often advised in books, and in their supervision, that they should identify key terms that will form part of themes in the literature review. For example, 'service delivery' is one of the key terms used in Siphos proposal. Kamler and Thompson (2006) criticised the use of this 'self help' literature. Kamler and Thompson (2006:1) state that 'whole sections in academic catalogues and entire shelves in bookshops are now devoted to a new kind of self-help book – the how-to-write-your-dissertation manual'. Such advice books do little to help, but instead add to the confusion and anxieties of students on academic writing (Kamler & Thompson, 2006:35-36). The example from Siphos proposal above illustrates how students misinterpret the purpose and genre of the literature review and borrow from the self-help books, leading to discourse clashes.

Another student, Suresh, did not include a literature section in his proposal. When I asked him for a reason, he said he had been unable to find literature available on incident management in Gauteng. He could only rely on face-to-face interviews with one person from Kwazulu-Natal. This also reveals the misperceptions when writing a literature review. Suresh thinks that his literature should come from interviews with ‘experts’ or people who work in ‘incident management’. Unlike the other students, he does not seem to know how to conduct a literature search. Practice-based research (Mode 2) involves limited academic research, and relies more on practitioners, unlike ‘gap-in-knowledge’ research, where students have to engage with the literature to identify a niche for their research.

Lastly, the ordering/sequencing or placement of the literature review differs among the students. Some students associate this with data collection, rather than providing a theoretical overview of the literature which is the purpose of the literature review (POL501M, Tutorial Letter 101, 2009:36).

Consider the following example from Maggie:

5.11 Extract from the Table of Contents in Maggie’s proposal:

- 6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
 - 6.1 RESEARCH APPROACH / DESIGN
 - 6.2 DATA COLLECTION
 - 6.2.1 Literature review
 - 6.2.2 Interviews
 - 6.2.3 Questionnaire survey
 - 6.3 DATA ANALYSIS

This extract shows that, like Sipho, Maggie understands the literature review to be part of the data collection process, rather than the theoretical framing of the research.

5.4.1 The influence of Tutorial Letter 101 on the proposals

My analysis of the proposals indicates the students' levels of comprehension or understanding of, for example, the literature review. The advice given on the literature review section in Tutorial Letter 101 (Appendix A) is often repeated word for word by students at the beginning of the literature review. For example, students begin the literature review section by writing, 'you should give a clear indication, on the basis of the literature that you have studied, that you are familiar with and understand the problem and the research area' (this is demonstrated in Chapter 5). The reason for this could be that the students do not recognise that this is advice and should not be repeated in the proposal, or that they do not have to start by defining each subsection. The plagiarism of the information in the Tutorial Letter is evident in the use of the pronoun 'you' among some of the students, (for example, Vinesh in Chapter Six).

The Tutorial Letter is a blend of written and spoken discourse as the lecturers attempt to demonstrate written academic discourse and yet at the same time 'chat' to the students through print.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, these intertextual chains reveal aspects of hegemonic struggles (Fairclough, 1992) through the way in which the police students situate their key theoretical concepts within the police context. Their selection of material for inclusion in their proposals suggests the influence of work-based concepts and police professional identities. The second theme of hybridity reveals practices (professional, instructional, procedural) that are borrowed from professional discourse practices, which are related to the police ranks (e.g. warrant officer and captain). They are embedded discourses of policing and 'professionalism'. This will be further developed in Chapter Six.

A common theme amongst four of the students was the use of manifest intertextuality in the description of the KTCs. A slight difference is observed in Maggie and Jabu who include terms and sources which have to do with theoretical research policing concepts, for example, (Maggie – Crime prevention, and Jabu – Crime prevention). For the most part, the sources of these terms are workplace or public documents, which are drawn from the 'everyday' practicalities of policing. In the second part of the chapter, I did an intertextual analysis of the literature review of five students. In this analysis, I describe some common discourse conventions, such as drawing from self-help literature, and voicing some of the professional discourses associated with professional ranks. A key

finding is how this contributes to the relationship between the writer and the reader, in other words, the social relations, and the ‘dialogicality’ in the writing, discussed in Chapter Six (Bakhtin, 1981). As these discourses are identified in the writing, they also reveal aspects of the writer’s identity and policing identity (Ivanic, 1998), in other words, the autobiographical self and the self as author. Rick’s writing also reveals instructional procedural discourse.

Maggie seems to differ from the other students in the sense that her various policing roles, for example as a security professional at a mine and as a university student, intersect in the discourses that are evident in her writing. I used interdiscursivity to analyse her ‘unique’ style of writing the literature review. Maggie presents her literature review in speech-like style of academic discourse by using bullets, short points, and headings that are more suited to a PowerPoint presentation. In terms of the generic features of the writing of a literature review, this appears to be intended for oral presentation rather than reading. In the next chapter, I rely on ethnographic framing in order to explore the recontextualisation processes that occur in the proposals. I compare and contrast two students. Given the multiple contexts (PWU), the tensions and hybridisation of discourses, it is important to find out the views of the students before drawing conclusions.

Chapter Six

Interdiscursivity and Recontextualisation Processes in Academic Writing: A Case of Maggie and Sipho

6.1 Introduction

The life of a word is contained in its transfer from one mouth to another, from one context to another, from one generation to another. In this process the word does not forget its own path and cannot completely free itself from these concrete contexts into which it has entered. (Bakhtin 1984:202)

In Chapter Five, I compared six students. The first part of the chapter described tensions demonstrated in the students' selection of KTCs for their proposals. I analysed this section, in order to compare and contrast the tensions that I observed in the proposals. The second part of Chapter Five developed the idea of tensions by illustrating how these tensions result in discourse clashes when students write the literature review section of the proposal. I used the term discourse clashes as a descriptive and analytical concept. Students showed more agency and perhaps strategic use of some of the resources and orders of discourses through hybridity. However, to fully explore the discourse clashes, I return to ethnographic data and now focus on interviews with two of the students.

Two students are the main focus of this chapter. These students are Maggie, who works at a mine I have called 'North West Mine', in North West Province, and Sipho, from a small town in the Eastern Cape (See Chapters 5 for students' profiles). I had to travel from the Unisa main campus in Pretoria to meet both students. They agreed to meet me during their office/duty hours. Maggie was interviewed in her office at North West Mine in Rustenburg. During the interview, she switched on her computer to show me some of the corporate templates and manuals on how to write professional documents (e.g. memos). I also travelled to a small town in the Eastern Cape to meet Sipho. After spending about 30 minutes outside the police station waiting for him, he drove in, and told me to follow him to his house. In both cases, the interviews lasted slightly more than an hour. These meetings with the students in remote areas were necessary because textual/discourse analysis (TODA) alone (Fairclough, 1992) could not reveal enough

about the sociocultural context or sufficiently answer my research questions. Therefore, it has to be followed by a recontextualisation process analysis (see Chapter Three on methodology and my analytical framework). The ethnographic methods of participant observation and unstructured interviews lead to enhanced understanding of interdiscursivity and recontextualiation. This chapter expands on some of the tensions and tries to answer the main research question by using both the linguistic analysis of texts and the interviews. These layers of analysis and interpretations, from texts to discursive practice, and finally to sociocultural practice, make up Fairclough's (1992) approach to critical discourse analysis. In Chapter Four I discussed the context; in Chapter Five I discussed the actual texts; in Chapter Six I deepen the understanding of both the discursive and social practices. Throughout this process, I attempt to interpret these layers of data in order to answer my main research question.

The choice of Maggie and Sipho to illustrate the recontextualisation strategies used in proposal writing was motivated by the similarities and differences between them. The following table presents some of the characteristics of Maggie and Sipho's profiles in Chapter Five:

Table 6.1: Profiles of Maggie and Sipho

Pseudonym	Gender	Race	Police rank	Year of joining police
Sipho	Male	Black	Warrant Officer	1991
Maggie	Female	White	Former Police Captain/ Current Security Manager	1992

From the table above, it can be observed that there are a few similarities between the two students. They both joined the police in the pre-democratic era, when the country was about to change. They both went through the six months' basic training in the police. They therefore have a similar professional training. Both of them were successful in SAPS in terms of promotions and ranks. Sipho is currently a Station

Commander. Maggie left the organisation when she was Captain of the Crime Intelligence Unit, after having been there for 10 years. During the time of the interview in 2011, Sipho had completed 20 years of service. In terms of higher education, Sipho has only studied policing degrees, but Maggie has a BA in psychology. Maggie is now in a corporate environment; she decided to do the MTech Policing degree and works closely with the police, as can be deduced from her research topic on ‘asset theft’.

The following analysis uncovers some of the differences in their research proposal writing. What is interesting for me is using similar analytical tools, but exposing contrasting responses in how the students recontextualized professional discourse practices in academic writing. In order to describe this recontextualisation, I use two methods: firstly, interdiscursive analysis of discourse types, conventions, and orders of discourses in excerpts from the proposals, and secondly, recontextualisation process analysis of the interviews with both students. The interdiscursive analysis is a combination of textual analysis with an analysis of social events and practices. Occasionally in this chapter, manifest intertextuality is used together with a linguistic analysis (e.g modality and force) as a way of setting the context of the interviews with the two students. I first show how Maggie’s proposal draws intertextually from socio-political discourses of police reforms that took place, following South Africa’s first democratic elections in 1994.

6.2 Maggie’s academic writing: Drawing from discourses of transformation and democratic reforms

The following extract from Maggie’s proposal illustrates the socio-political discourses that inform her section in the background and introduction of her proposal:

Extract from Maggie’s proposal

Background and rationale for the research

Crime in South Africa has been a topic of concern for the government since 1994. In an effort to address crime, government and various private sector security divisions started to adopt a preventative or pro-active approach towards criminality. (White Paper on Safety and Security 1998: 89-102). Crime prevention is however not a new concept, but have been developed and implemented throughout the world for many decades (Coetzer 2003: 114). Minaar (2004: 2) stated that the private security domain in South Africa, as

with worldwide trends, has experienced rapid growth in the last decade. With that growth and changing policing styles in South Africa, came a greater demand for more involvement from private sector in policing and crime prevention activities (page 1, Maggie's proposal).

From the extract above, instructions and policies originate at the political level and are then cascaded to the provincial and eventually to the police station level. For example, 'Crime in South Africa has been a topic of concern for the government since 1994.' This sentence makes an assumption that before 1994 the police were re-active; it draws from apartheid discourses of seeing the police as a 'force', and reactive. There have been changes in the policing style over the last few decades. The White Paper on Safety and Security (DSS, 1998) precipitated changes in policing in South Africa. In it, the then Minister of Safety and Security, Sidney Mafumadi, emphasised that:

At the heart of the White Paper lies the challenge of enhancing the transformation of the police so that they are able to function effectively within the new democracy; and enhancing social crime prevention activities to reduce the occurrence of crime.

The White Paper outlined the policy changes needed at government level to enable the police to function within the new democratic dispensation, for example 'the demilitarisation of the rank structure of the new police service and the appointment of skilled civilians into key positions in this service' (DSS, 1998). The name of the police force changed from the South African Police (SAP) to the South African Police Service (c.f. Chapter 2). Service delivery and community policing became the key focus in the then newly introduced National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS).

Maggie's extract illustrates manifest or actual intertextuality and the political and policing discourses that are drawn upon in the students' writing. For example, the reference to the White Paper on Safety and Security signalled the changes that the new government wanted to introduce in policing in the country and the broader discourses of crime prevention, which saw a new partnership between the state and private sector. It is instanced through the use of citations from various documents, such as legislation and police research (for example Coetzer, 2003:114), and references to the original

documents, using standard Harvard citation. Despite the page numbers given, the student's text does not have any direct quotation.

6.3 Post-1994 service delivery discourse and crime prevention strategies

I then based the semi-structured interview on Maggie's text. Lillis (2001) describes this as 'talk around text', in order to establish intertextual practices. When I asked Maggie about what she meant to say in this extract she made the following observations (underlining represents my emphasis):

Maggie: The South African police force was changed to the South African police service. One of the reasons was that we were supposed to move towards a focus on service delivery. The community are our clients and that you are delivering a service to them. Instead of enforcing rules onto them. I only know about the new police, I was not there before. I joined the police during the transformation. Since 1994 things changed. The legislation changed to the new service delivery approach. (page 7)

Maggie: Crime prevention was a big thing that they hadn't focussed on from the start. There are a lot of theories and models that one can use for crime prevention, and delivering a service to deter crime. (page 7)

Maggie is being careful to distance herself from the pre-1994 era. She mentions the shifts that have occurred in post-1994 democratic South Africa. Pre-1994 the police were different; they were referred to as a force. Various forces (11) were amalgamated (see Chapter 2). In fact, the police had a very strained relationship with the public, especially with black people in township areas (Steinberg, 2008). The shifts in police reforms in South Africa have also been observed by Marais and Rauch (1992) and Rauch (2000). The transition from apartheid to democracy was accompanied by reforms, and transformation of the police. The reforms happened just after the first democratic elections, while transformation remains part of the governments' strategy. Interestingly the police are still experiencing shifts and changes, without a permanent model or strategy. This is evident in the 're-militarization' of the police force (Berning & Masiloane, 2011). Meanwhile, the police still claim to be rendering a service and often resist any criticism that likens them to a pre-1994 force. The transformation already alluded to in the White Paper on Safety and Security (DSS, 1998) ushered in a

new focus on service delivery and crime prevention, mentioned by Maggie above. Maggie's discourse speaks of service delivery and community relationships, which were not a priority for the apartheid police, specifically in places where blacks were staying – the so-called homelands. Maggie's writing of the proposal is informed by the policing background from the state and the newly forged partnership with the private sector. The democratic government implemented community policing. The partnership is between the state and the private sector in the provision of safety and security. This is important later in terms of how Maggie recontextualises both policing and the mining private sector discourse conventions in her writing. In the following section, I describe another characteristic of her writing by analysing the interdiscursivity in her text.

6.4 Discourse clashes in functions like teaching through the use of pragmatic force modifiers

The following analysis of a short extract from Maggie indicates how some values and practices of her identity, and her professional practices, intersect with academic writing. I analyse force and style to indicate the clash between professional discourse practices and academic discourse practices (note that the bolded sections are from the student's original text and underlining was done by me to illustrate the didactic 'function').

Extract from Maggie's proposal

7. VALIDITY, RELIABILITY AND ACCURACY OF COLLECTED INFORMATION

(S1)External validity reflects the effectiveness with which the findings enable the researcher to predict the course of events in other times and places. (S2)The use of primary sources is an important principle of historical research as the transfer of information from one source to another may be inadvertently distorted. (3)In historical research, information from primary sources is normally obtained by means of purposive or snowball sampling and unstructured or semi-structured interviews. (S4)Information from both primary and secondary sources should be subjected to stringent criticism. (S5)External criticism is directed at the genuineness and authenticity of the source whilst internal criticism reflects the accuracy or credibility of the contents of the source. (S6)The information that stood the test of internal and external criticism should be synthesised and interpreted in an attempt to propose explanations and

correlations. (S7)Fundamentally such explanations amount to interpretations of the evaluated information by means of inductive logic.

(S8)The intended research will **describe** the extent of asset theft, current preventative approach and available research on crime prevention strategies with the aim of recommending the most viable preventative strategy for the participating mine.

(S9)The requirements for **reliability** (the extent to which measurement techniques used construct the same results constantly) and replicability outlined by Welman & Kruger (2001: 138, 180) will be adhered to. (S10)Meticulous record will be kept of all information described in the study or used to base findings on.

In the example above, Maggie uses an extensive definition and explanation (see S.4 to S.7) in the first paragraph. Although academic writing is characterised by definition, this is not the usual way of doing definitions. The function changes in the last few sentences to resemble suggestions, telling, and instructing. For example sentence 4 and sentence 7:

(S4)Information from both primary and secondary sources should be subjected to stringent criticism. (S5)External criticism is directed at the genuineness and authenticity of the source whilst internal criticism reflects the accuracy or credibility of the contents of the source. (S6)The information that stood the test of internal and external criticism should be synthesised and interpreted in an attempt to propose explanations and correlations. (S7)Fundamentally such explanations amount to interpretations of the evaluated information by means of inductive logic.

The use of pragmatic force modifiers (Lin, 2010) or hedges, and modals in two of the sentences above, namely ‘should be subjected to’ and ‘should be synthesised’ suggests a different language function, which can be associated with informing, teaching, and advocating. Fairclough (1992:75) explains this as force of utterances and as examples of speech acts (promises, requests, threats etc.). Besides the force modifiers, Maggie uses adjectives like ‘stringent’ (S4) and intensifiers like ‘fundamentally’ (S7). The adjective is used to describe the noun ‘criticism’. Maggie is fulfilling a text function of educating her readers about processes of validation, reliability and establishing accuracy of information. This kind of hybrid style is what led me to describe these as discourse clashes in the student’s writing. Different discourse conventions are used; one of teaching or informing, and another of fulfilling the purpose of the proposal, in the sense

that definitions are found in academic discourse. The genesis of this is in the police socio-cultural milieu. Adlam (1999, 2002) aptly points out that, ‘we the police know’ and civilians or the public do not know. Therefore, the police have a tendency to give instructions, and teach people because of the ‘division’ that is created between civilians and ‘non-civilians/police officials’. This division becomes recontextualised in Maggie’s writing. The supervisor also confirmed this later on in this chapter.

6.5 ‘I was not to forget that my reader comes from another world’: Audience in the proposal

Maggie uses bold typography for actions and techniques in her text, suggesting that this is what is more prominent. In my interview with her, Maggie gave reasons why she defines, bolds, and sometimes writes in point form, as if she is going to make a presentation.

In my analysis of Maggie’s extract, I identified aspects of the force and style which closely resembled professional writing. I asked her to comment on this evidently non-academic style of using bullets, points, and bold text in a research proposal:

Researcher: Another way in which you write is bullets, points and bolding. Are you aware that is how you write?

Maggie: I do and I was told, at some point by Villa (supervisor) that the bold she disliked but the italic she forbade. ‘You italicise something in quotations for instance in public speaking.’ Those bold end up in my presentation and I do a lot of public speaking. Normally from a publication, I know that I have to do a presentation for public speaking and those end up in writing. So I think my writing style must have been adopted from doing a lot of presentations. Which my supervisors did not approve because there are apparently rules when writing, and as for italics she strongly forbade. (page 9)

Maggie confirmed my interpretation of her writing. She said she had already been made aware of this by the supervisor. Maggie states that her writing style is influenced by her public speaking and presentations, which are probably PowerPoint presentations to professional colleagues in North West Mine. In the context of advanced academic literacies and in my research, this constitutes a discourse clash. McKenna (2004:273) describes this as investment in workplace literacy, referring to the multiple identities of

the students. In my research, there seems to be an interdiscursivity of the oral presentation mode appearing in the written proposal. In describing how prior discourses intersects with academic discourse Angelil–Carter (2000:38) observes that ‘when we get a new student learning how to write in a discipline, therefore, what may manifest itself in their writing is the unsuccessful, conflictual hybridization of prior school (or other) discourses and new academic ones.’

From the intertextual analysis and interdiscursive analysis of Maggie’s writing, it was evident that her style of the writing was unlike academic discourse. Maggie mentioned the following on the guidance she received from her supervisor:

Researcher: So do you get a mismatch between what the supervisor wants and your own writing?

Maggie: I think Villa did a good job in changing my style. What she did to change the style is that sometimes I would write the fact and not elaborate as to what it means. She would guide me with questions...eh...explain this to me. Tell me why do you find this interesting. Explain the significance so that the reader must understand. By providing those, it eventually changed my factual stance into a story line that one can follow. The thing is my audience has always been people in the crime world. I have clients who are police commissioners or parliament, or the private sector. Its security managers. So you don’t need to explain certain things, in our world, there is a common understanding. I think that was the biggest challenge. I was not to forget that my reader comes from another world and therefore he must understand. That is one of the things where Villa played a significant role, by asking me to explain, give significance, and say why I find this interesting. After a couple of years then my statements eventually became paragraphs...(page 3.)

The supervisor mediates the appropriate academic writing style to the student, using various strategies and pedagogies of teaching writing. In this context, the supervisor represents the academic reader. She speaks on behalf of the interests of the academic discourse community (Swales 1990; Johns, 1997). However, Maggie is not familiar with writing for an academic audience. Her audience has been people from her workplace, namely police professionals, politicians and corporate people. Maggie draws both intertextually and interdiscursively from her experience in the police and in a corporate company when writing the proposal. This results in a text that has a double purpose and audience. Maggie is located in the workplace context. She is unable to

‘imagine the audience’ (Bangeni 2013:256) or what the academic reader needs, without guidance from her supervisor. Her academic discourse practice at this moment is misaligned because of the way in which her genre knowledge draws on all three contexts of the professional, workplace and university contexts. Moreover, Maggie observes where this discourse clash came from, by saying ‘I was not to forget that my reader comes from another world’ meaning that her reader comes from an academic context. She uses the word ‘world’ instead of ‘place’, suggesting that she is aware of the values, cultures, or even systems that operate within the different contexts of the workplace and the university. The word ‘world’ also resonates with ‘discourse practices’, a key aspect in the interdiscursivity of texts.

Also key in this extract is the mediation by the supervisor. Maggie’s supervisor uses questions to help her to explain and elaborate in her writing. This led me to ask her about the tuition/modelling provided by the university to scaffold the writing task for them:

Researcher: I know you mentioned format, for the proposal. I know that you are given sub-headings to use for your proposal. Did you find that useful to write, the problem statement, the questions...and so on?

Maggie: I think the structure is one thing, and it would be difficult if you have never done one before. I think to what level you need to expand on those sub-headings was very difficult. For instance, if you take a corporate proposal, they are not really interested in your methodology. They are interested in your ethical concessions, any kind of reputational aspect that might impact on your research project, and the budget. 12 pages of the proposal is the budget. Now obviously, Unisa is very different from that. You weren’t sure of how much percentage should be underneath those headings. Like we do in the corporate world, we divide it like 70% of your proposal should be the costs and how you will analyze that. Now I found that in Unisa the methodology was more important and then she told me that I must explain on this sub section. Now I went forth and did a big literature, which is not required at that level. I did half the literature for the Masters when I was doing the proposal. So that is different in the corporate world, I was already with North West Mine. I was already part of the corporate writing style. They use a different template and structure, apparently Unisa does not care much about the budget. (page 4).

In this discussion, Maggie shows a post-writing reflective awareness of her experience of writing the proposal, and some of the mismatches between her and her supervisor's expectations. Maggie may in fact be concerned about her workplace mine audience and academic audience. The generic structure of the proposal is influenced by audience and context, in broader terms by the discourse community. This relates to the tensions observed by Cadman (2002), and some of the challenges associated with postgraduate students who are attempting to 'enter the conversation', in other words as apprentice members of postgraduate academic literacies (Clark, 2005:141). For other students, the audience is the police and academics. Maggie's situation results in discourse clashes because the 'generic conventions' of corporate proposals and academic proposals are not similar. Corporate proposals are written in the workplace context, and academic proposals are written in the university. There are differences between these proposals. They may use some similar subheadings and titles, but the weighting of certain sections or the degree of elaboration is unequal. They also serve different purposes and interests. For instance, the workplace is interested in aspects of the proposal that relate to its image and reputation, e.g 'ethical considerations' and it is interested in profit making as a capitalist and is a 'for profit' organisation. Therefore, the costs of the research being proposed have to be detailed. Maggie has to shuttle between the two contexts, where the company would like the proposal to focus on certain aspects, while the university wants to assess the proposal using different assessment criteria. It is interesting to note how the private sector quantifies the generic features of a proposal. There is a focus on the proportional quantities of different sections, e.g. 70% for costs and 12 pages for the budget. While these may be estimates, they give an indication of the importance of both audience and context. In contrast, the university (Unisa) does not have such specifications for students. Based on the evidence above, it can be observed that the contexts of culture place different demands and expectations on the writer of the genre/text. Maggie is situated in the corporate culture; for other students, like Sipho, the police culture is dominant. Maggie has to write to people from 'another world' as she puts it and straddle conflicting discourse practices of both.

6.6 Audience and style in the research proposal

My interview with Maggie moved from the format and the subheadings that are given to the MTech students to how students actually write and interpret those subheadings. I wanted to get her views on why students (including herself) start by

defining/explaining/lecturing on each sub-heading in the proposal. This is well illustrated in Vinesh's proposal below (one of the students who formed part of the larger sample in addition to the six who are the main focus of the dissertation), and Maggie was very helpful in explaining this practice:

Extract from Vinesh's proposal

LITERATURE REVIEW

[S1] Literature review is the study of particular sources relating to the research. [S2] A literature review is a systematic search of published work to find out what is already known about the intended research topic. [S3] With regard to this particular study very little material is available for consultation. [S4] This subject has not been extensively researched in the past; therefore sources outside South Africa had to be the primary base for consultation.

[S5] The literature review should not consist of a mere compilation of separate, isolated summaries of the individual studies of previous researchers. [S6] You should clearly show how these studies relate to one another and how the proposed research ties in with them. [S7] For example, group together those that are in agreement and refer to this agreement by using words like "similarly" when moving from one to the next. [S8] The most glaring blunder in this regard is to present the opinions or findings of different authors, who basically are in agreement but who have expressed themselves in different ways, as different contributions. (Welman, & Kruger, 2004:50).

[S9] The researcher has studied literature of a number of writers to obtain information on the topic. The researcher is familiar with the problem and the research area. [S10] The researcher has studied journals and internet websites eg: ISS, SAPS, CSV, and the relevant findings were used. [S11] The literature partially covered the research but not in totality.

There have been few researches on Sector Policing especially South Africans.

According to the Dixon and Rauch (2004:60) the vagueness of Sector Policing concept and the fact that it has been cited in support of both the soft crime prevention agenda and the tough crackdown agenda within the SAPS may be the reason why the concept has survived and finally graduated into national police policy. However, the fact that Sector Policing has been cited in support of diverse policing tactics suggests that the concept may be less than clear. (page 10, Vinesh's proposal)

In summary, Vinesh starts with a definition of a literature review and uses the verb 'is' in S.1, S.2, and the repetition of the phrase 'literature review'. Clauses that define are

usually in the present simple tense, and use ‘relational processes’ (Eggins, 2004) such as ‘is’. The third sentence then shifts to the process of gathering sources or gathering information that could be included in the literature review of his proposal. In the second paragraph, (S.5) Vinesh uses a similar force modifier ‘should not’ in the same way that Maggie does. This is followed by the second person pronoun ‘you’ (S.6), which is typical in advertising or instructional genres. The ‘you’ may come from borrowing from Tutorial Letter 101 as previously mentioned. Vinesh’s example after this sentence is an imperative that gives a command of what has to be done, ‘group together those that are in agreement and refer to this agreement by using words like “similarly” when moving from one to the next.’ The third paragraph, starting from sentence 9, is about the researcher (in the third person) and describes the researcher’s process of gathering sources and information. Websites are indicated. The student is mistaken in saying the websites yielded findings. Findings usually refer to results of research, but in this case they represent the information that was obtained from the websites. The actual literature review only starts on paragraph four, and it is about sector policing. This analysis further reveals the tensions and discourse clashes mentioned in Chapter Five, e.g. the instructive procedural genre, the use of modality, and another function of informing or teaching. This is associated with police professional discourse practices, observed through definitional/explanatory writing (similar observations were made when analysing Sipho, Anele, and Rick in Chapter 5).

As I have indicated, Maggie’s interview assisted me in interpreting and explaining this practice of defining:

Maggie’s talk around text

Researcher: Some of the students take the heading and, before they do something or write, they start by defining – like a literature review is this – before they actually do the literature review, I think I found that a lot with the students.

Maggie: Not so much the literature review I think. I would say when I am writing the methodology, I would start by defining the methodology. I think one of the reasons why you might find higher existence of that among policing students is that policing is a definition based writing style. You need to clarify terms. For instance, the person who is reading your proposal, may not understand what is a literature review. No one knows

what it is, so because of the way things are done, we then adopt that even when we leave.

When you use the word suspect, accused, or person of interest, you need to define that because your reader might think it means something different. A suspect is someone you have not arrested and an accused is someone you have already arrested and a person of interest is someone you have not determined whether he is a suspect or accused. When we write reports we have to define those terms and we end up explaining everything. (page 4 and 5)

Maggie agrees with my observation that under each of the subheadings within the proposal there is a tendency to start by defining. Police professional writing culture can be described as a ‘definition-based writing style’. This professional writing convention influences the academic writing style through interdiscursivity. According to Maggie, police students in general write for two audiences, that is the professional and academic audiences (although she is not aware of the PWU intersecting contexts, with its overlaps and conflicts). In a sense, defining is an indicator of writing for a different audience, as she puts it ‘the person who is reading your proposal, may not understand what is a literature review.’ In police professional writing, terms like ‘suspect’ have to be defined. (She then starts ‘lecturing’ me on the differences between suspect, accused, and ‘person of interest.’ Another indication of how the police perceive themselves as ‘knowledgeable’). The discussion then moves to defining terms like ‘literature review’ and ‘methodology’ in academic writing. The dominance of this discourse practice manifests in writing of the proposal. This is compounded by the dual audience that the police write for, as Maggie further elaborates below:

Maggie: It depends on the audience of who you are writing for. If your policing students are writing for your police audience, the reason would include that half of the police would not know it. Obviously for an academic it would be like I know a literature review, I don’t need a reminder. However, if you are writing for a police environment and the people that are going to read your thesis are police officials. For example, I had to write my thesis for North West Mine and I had to explain a lot because I knew that they are reading it but they do not know what a literature review is. They do not know what post-positivist is. They don’t know your analysis. Your methodology is more detailed. You can’t just do frequency analysis. When you define what a frequency analysis is, you not really doing that for your supervisor or your examiner, but you are doing it for your reading audience. So that they will follow. I know the reason why I

defined a lot of my methodology which was unnecessary for an academic reader. It is because I needed to explain it for my reading audience within North West Mine . And I can only imagine there will be a similar environment with police officials. I can tell you that everyone in this room where I work is waiting to read what I publish. They see something that you have published and they want to read it. So even when you write you write with that in mind. You know some of the faces that want to read it, and sometimes they won't be able to follow what you want to do. (page 5)

Maggie is influenced by the more immediate/local audience of the workplace and her profession. She states this succinctly, by mentioning the expectations from the 'text-consumers', 'I can tell you that everyone in this room where I work is waiting to read what I publish.' Audience is part of the discursive practice according to Fairclough (1992). At this intersection of academic discourses and workplace discourses, the readers have a significant influence on the genre. These findings show that style can be altered within the genre, resulting in a hybrid genre. Bakhtin (1986:95-96) goes on to say that,

When speaking I always take into account the aperceptive background of the addressee's perception of my speech: the extent to which he is familiar with the situation, whether he has specialized knowledge of the given cultural area of communication, his views and convictions, his prejudices (from my viewpoint), his sympathies and antipathies – because all this will determine his active responsive understanding of my utterance. These considerations also determine my choice of a genre for my utterance, my choice of compositional devices, and, finally, my choice of language vehicles, that is, the style of my utterance.

For Bakhtin, firstly, the addressee is important in terms of the specialised knowledge that should be included in the 'utterance', in other words the text, in order for him or her to understand. Secondly, the style of the genre is influenced by the nature of the audience. In the case of Maggie, her workplace audience is the immediate audience that she describes vividly below:

Maggie: Because I sit in the mines as part of the organization, everyone knows about my writing, and they all want copies once it's finished. So it's a quite anticipated publication because there is nothing much done in the mining industry. (page 6)

Maggie: Well one of the reasons why I took so long is because I have a definite audience. We have a lot of mining people, labour people, so its people that I know in meetings. So obviously if I make any statement that is unfounded or contradictory in any way. They would most likely point it out. They all work here in North West Mine. It's got a very big and successful research division. Obviously, because it's a research based on North West Mine, although it's an anonymous mining company. (page 6)

Her choice of pragmatic force modifiers 'well' 'so obviously', 'obviously' indicates an interesting tone, and a strong workplace subjectivity. Students who are professionals seem to write for their colleagues, to the point of visualising their interests and exactly who is going to be reading. Maggie writes for a corporate organisation, unlike other MTech students who are still within SAPS and are writing proposals that have to be approved by SAPS. SAPS has more authority over MTech students than Unisa when it comes to choice of research topic. This power affects the choice of topic according to Villa (supervisor), mentioned in Chapter Four. It is also apparent in the generic features of the proposal, in complying with the requirements for legalities or ethics, and in satisfying certain needs of the audience. Maggie wants to satisfy her employers at the mine. Although she is already part of senior management, she still wants to maintain credibility by producing relevant knowledge for her employers; knowledge that will be validated by her employers. Maggie is being pragmatic, and fulfilling the functions of the proposal genre within the context of a mine as her employer.

I then asked Maggie what kind of writing support she needed from the university. She mentioned that she wanted to be given a format, and layout because in the corporate sector, that is what they are given. North West Mine has a corporate template that shows the headings, colour, margins, font size, and use of bolding. This corporate template is available on the mine's intranet. She then turned on her desk computer and showed me a memo template. She mentioned that it shows colour, font, script, the case, names and sequence. These templates are provided for each type of document, e.g. memos, letters, reports, and agendas. This is what she wanted from Villa (her supervisor) when she started writing her proposal. Maggie said that

Here they show you what they want, heading, introduction, the purpose. I mean if North West Mine has something like that for a bloody agenda. Then surely for your Masters or Doctorate you want something like that.

Such expectations are currently not matched in the MTech degree. The above analysis has explored the recontextualisation processes in academic writing and has highlighted how police discourses are recontextualised in academic writing. The linguistic analysis of force, audience and style all contribute to hybridity. Having described Maggie's writing and analysed her talk above, I now discuss the recontextualisation processes in Sipho's proposal.

6.7 Sipho's recontextualisation of police professional discourse in the proposal

I refer to Sipho in Chapters Three and Five, I discuss findings from an interview with him in Chapter Four – where I wanted to explore some of the reactions to Tutorial Letter 101. Sipho is among those whose proposals were analysed in Chapter Five. As mentioned in Chapter Four, in an interview with the supervisor, it became apparent that Sipho believed that the aim of research is to offer solutions to policing problems, rather than to uncover and build an understanding of research problems. His use of modality leads to the inference that research is to provide service delivery. For example, in concluding the section on 'Background and rationale for the research', Sipho promises to achieve justice by undertaking this MTech degree:

6.7.1 Modality

Extract from 'the background and rationale for the research proposal':

It is also an intension of this study to provide justice to domestic violence victims i.e. at police station and at the courts. (Sipho's proposal, page 2)

What interested me is how the student expects to address the justice issue by enrolling for an MTech degree. Perhaps Sipho could have expressed this more tentatively, such as 'the study may contribute to justice', thereby conforming to the 'modality' of how one in academic proposals writes about his or her contribution. This also appears to be a conflation of one's duties as a professional with one's postgraduate studies and reflects policing discourse rather than academic discourse. The primary duty of the police is to investigate crimes and then gather evidence that can be used for prosecution and possible conviction; perhaps that is why Sipho links the research aim with providing justice. I explore modality in other sections of the proposal below.

Furthermore, the student claims that the value of the research will be in transforming police practices and changing policies, such as improving service delivery. For example;

Extract from proposal:

VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

This research will generate local interest amongst members of the SAPS who will take part in it and those who become aware of it. The researcher expects the Alice cluster, SAPS management locally and provincial management to draw lessons from this research. Stake holders from outside the SAPS, such as the local courts and nongovernmental organizations will value the research as part of their reference system for evaluating the SAPS in the area of domestic violence. This research study is aiming at improving service delivery to members of the public; therefore, they will value this research study. After this dissertation has been finalised, it will be published and the academic body of knowledge will have access. Students will draw lessons from it. (Sipho's proposal, page 8)

In the section above, the sub-heading is 'Value of the research'. It contains sentences with modals, such as (will generate, will take part, will value, and will be published), all of which indicate a strong degree of probability of the propositions that are made. In addition to this, there are categorical statements without the presence of modalisation, e.g 'the researcher expects the Alice cluster, SAPS management locally and provincially management to draw lessons from this research,' And 'this research study is aiming at improving service delivery to members of the public.' This suggests high certainty about the value of the research to both the police and public. Sipho claims that this research will improve 'service delivery', which is typically the goal of Mode 2 knowledge or research. Service delivery normally refers to government interventions or services meant to benefit citizens and residents of South Africa, such as the supply of water, electricity, security and housing. In their proposals, students tend to focus on operational benefits rather than on theoretical/intellectual benefits. As a writing tutor, I think the 'value of research' is supposed to contribute to knowledge, and scholarship (Mode 1 knowledge). This should be supported by previous research that has been conducted in the same field that a student is researching. Sipho does not mention any previous research in connection with his research. In the extracts above, Sipho's writing is factual, definitive and certain about the propositions that are made; however, academic

writing is usually more tentative. Such degree of certainty is unusual in academic writing in both scientific and humanities research articles (Hyland, 1994).

6.7.2 Research as a means of solving policing problems and service delivery

I then interviewed Sipho about the tension between academic knowledge and workplace knowledge. Sipho gives specific gaps in the Domestic Violence Act involving various institutions. The following excerpt explains the importance of policing domestic violence:

Sipho's talk around text:

In the police stations and courts, yes. You see, we are experiencing problems in court, in the justice system, in respect of this domestic violence. You see, one of the questions for my research was the training of the police officer. But now I notice that even those who are working at court are not trained in domestic violence, most of them are not trained. You see, those who are doing the domestic violence in the courts are these clerk of the courts and those things, they do not know, they do not understand the Domestic Violence Act. And there is nothing that says, if they do not comply with it, there will be a penalty or what, like in policing. You see, we as police officials are always focusing on domestic violence because if I have not complied with the Domestic Violence Act, it means I can be chased away from the service. So there is nothing from them, even from the clinics or the hospital. You see, a domestic violence victim have to get priority, but it's not practical in our hospitals. (Sipho's interview, page 12)

Poor police training has been blamed as a major weakness in the handling of domestic violence-related cases, particularly cases where women are the victims of domestic abuse. Sipho indicates that intervention in domestic violence involves different stakeholders, including the courts, police stations and hospitals. He says, 'But now I notice that even those who are working at court are not trained in domestic violence, most of them are not trained.' This statement comes from the knowledge that he has gained from his research. While the police have compliance rules where the Act is concerned, other institutions do not. For example, Sipho alludes to the rules and discipline that are enforced by the police service; such as 'if I have not complied with the Domestic Violence Act, it means I can be chased away from the service.' This again invokes the service delivery discourse. Sipho is able to identify the multifaceted nature

of domestic violence. While this may not address the problem, it uncovers the root causes of the problem and is in line with knowledge as a reflection on practice, in other words Mode 2 knowledge (Gibbons, et al. 1994). The police are expected to comply with the Act and where they do not, there are penalties, even to the point of dismissal from the service. This is part of the culture of the police that requires its members to be disciplined and to observe the rules (Adlam, 1999, 2002).

6.8 Recontextualisation of policing concepts in the proposal

When writing the aims of his study, Sipho uses the verb ‘investigate’ (extract below) which is a suitable term for a research aim. However, the term is used repeatedly when, for instance, other terms like ‘evaluation’, ‘impact’, and ‘satisfaction’ could have enhanced the nature of this research. Overuse of the word ‘investigate’ in the proposal may be because the word is central to police investigative discourse and investigation of crime. It thus expresses an overlap, and potential tension, between the professional and academic discourse settings.

Extract from proposal:

AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

It seems as if members of the community of the Alice cluster are not properly served or not served at all when they come to report domestic violence cases. The researcher intends to investigate this problem of poor attendance of domestic violence cases or non attendance. It is also the duty of the researcher to investigate if member of the South African Police Service who are already in the field do get in-service training by means of workshops or courses and trainees who are at the college do get enough information and training on domestic violence. The aim of this research study is to investigate whether members of the SAPS who are already serving members of the community in the Alice cluster and have sufficient knowledge of the Domestic Violence Act and whether the quality of their services illustrate the importance of the Act. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa stipulates that everybody have the right to be treated with dignity and respect. The researcher will also investigate if registers and forms needed to record domestic violence incidence and cases are available at the community service centre.

These forms include 508(a), form 1, form 2, certified copies of warrants and SAPS508 (b) (domestic violence register).

These registers and forms can help the community service centre personnel to maintain good service delivery to members of the community. The researcher will investigate if there is privacy when dealing with domestic violence victims because every Police Station is supposed to have a victim's room or friendly facility where victims of domestic violence are attended. The researcher will also investigate if important contact numbers that could be helpful to the victims e.g. district surgeons, clinics etc. (Sipho's proposal, page 5)

The main verb action (processes in Hallidayan terms), namely 'investigate', is that of a material process. It represents the doing or the action that Sipho intends to carry out. This terminology is recontextualised in the aims of the proposal. It signifies the investigative nature of policing. Besides the recontextualisation of investigative discourse in the proposal, the student may have limited vocabulary as an English as an additional language speaker. However, what is of interest is that this discourse type dominates and results in reduced use of other terms that could have represented a variety of academic discourse. The term 'investigate' derives from workplace terminology, and describes a policing technique of conducting operational duties. Investigation of crime constitutes a major part of police performance. The student is borrowing from the workplace and applying it wholesale into the academic context. There is a misfit when these terms are recontextualised in the proposal.

This misfit is on both the intertextuality of the term 'cluster' as a key theoretical concept (KTC), discussed in Chapter Five and the recontextualisation of terminology, such as 'investigate', in Sipho's research aims represent 'sense-making practices' (Gunilla, 2006) or the imitation of these elements of discourse to make meaning in a new context.

I then asked Sipho to comment on both terms that he used in the research below:

Talk around text:

Researcher: Can you tell me what is a cluster? What do you mean by a cluster?

Sipho: A cluster, it's when a number of stations are grouped together. You see, the province is divided into clusters. Here it's about twenty-eight clusters. [...]

Researcher: You mentioned a lot about investigations – investigate this problem of poor attendance, to investigate whether members of the SAPS, who are already serving members of the community have sufficient knowledge, to investigate when dealing with

domestic violence. Investigate if important (...) members (...) - So I just want to find out why were you focusing a lot on just that term 'investigate' throughout your aim? Was that what your study did?

Sipho: Yes, that was the focus of my study. Because I have to investigate the handling of domestic violence cases in the Alice cluster. Yes.

Researcher: Because I remember, I was thinking other terms like evaluate, which you could mention in your proposal, and then impact of the satisfaction - don't you think those kind of terms could have also been used to enrich these kind of aims for your study?

Sipho: Yes, but when you are investigating something you need to have results. Therefore that is why I was using the term investigate. Because I had to investigate so that it's something that is not known to me, then I have to have knowledge of it. (Sipho's interview, page 15 and 16)

In using the term 'cluster' as a KTC, Sipho is borrowing from its meaning as that of a group of police stations under a particular line of command. He stated that this was indeed a national and provincial organisational concept. Under his own jurisdiction, he had a cluster that consisted of three small towns, which he named during the interview. This is called the Alice cluster. Therefore, this is indeed a workplace term that has been recontextualised into the proposal text as an operational concept. Some of the supervisors allow students to provide these. However, the term 'cluster' may be insufficient as a theoretical concept that is required by some supervisors and by the guidelines in Tutorial Letter 101(c.f. Chapter Four).

The second term that the student uses is 'investigate'. This is another example of workplace terminology, and a policing technique of conducting operational duties. He observes that in order to gain knowledge and results for his research, he wanted to do an investigation. The terminology in the extracts and Sipho's comments in the interview show that he is borrowing terms from the workplace and applying them 'wholesale' into the academic context. This form of recontextualization is imitative, perhaps as a result of Sipho's lack of proficiency in English. Maggie's proposal, however, demonstrated more interdiscursivity.

Since the use of bullets or points was observed in Maggie's writing, I also asked Sipho about his views on the use of bullets. I did not identify this 'style' in his proposal:

Researcher: What are your thoughts on that? How do you feel about using bullets?

Sipho: I didn't see any problems about using them, but my supervisor didn't like those bullets. I was not using them, otherwise I didn't use them all over my research.

Like Maggie, Sipho is accustomed to using bullets in his professional writing. At the initial stages of his proposal, he used them, but had to desist from their use in academic writing. Sipho acknowledges the role of the supervisor in guidance on an academic writing style. As mentioned above, I asked this question in order to compare his response to that of Maggie's.

In Maggie's proposal, I identified a type of writing that is 'definition-based'. It was also observed that in some cases students tend to write as though they are speaking or instructing the reader on some procedure by using force modifiers. Sipho's response to this seems to be similar to Maggie's response on how style can be determined/influenced by audience:

Researcher: And when I was looking at some of the sub headings into the proposal, of the specific proposal, there is a sort of an attempt to first define the concepts...you see, the sub headings are like, problem statement, (...), like value, like ethics. There's a tendency that you start by defining the sub heading, and then moving on, why is that?

Sipho: You see, when you are doing the research, I believe someone who is not familiar with your research, must not have questions as to what is...if I'm talking about...what can I say...if I'm talking...I'm referring to something, I have to first explain it so that there can be no questions.

Both students confirm this type of writing that I found common amongst the proposals that I analysed. While Maggie is able to describe the style of police writing as 'definition-based' or 'fact-based', Sipho does not use such stylistic description. Instead he uses a police interrogative response of pre-empting questions that might be asked by the readers, 'I have to first explain it so that there can be no questions.' This is an illustration of the police discourse practice of 'informing' or 'instructing'. In the professional environment, the police are exposed to a lot of questions about what they write or say. When they write their research proposal, this is then interdiscursively transferred to academic discourse. Bakhtin's (1986) notion of dialogicality seems to be relevant in the case of Sipho. He is 'responding to voices in the sociocultural context' (Gunilla, 2006:673), when he writes his proposal. As mentioned in Chapter Five,

Sipho's literature review displayed a mixture of discourse of the investigative procedure (interdiscursively), with manifest intertextuality of 'self-help' literature on the writing of a literature review. In our talk around the text he reveals how some of the discourses which students bring along are removed during assessment of the proposal:

Researcher: And then I want to go back to the issue of starting by defining a concept. You start by explaining the literature review: "the importance of literature in scientific research could not be overemphasized. According to Mouton, Mouton indicated that when embarking on a research, one of the first stage should be to find out what has been done. He further stated (...) And then this means that the researcher wants to learn from others how (...). this literature will examine the key terms..." then you say what the literature is sort of to introduce what it will do. But actually here when I read this, I think it's some advice. I think you're writing advice that is directed to you by Mouton, but you're repeating it here. And my question at the beginning was, why did you have to explain what is a literature review? And not go straight into it? For me it starts in paragraph three. One study

Sipho: These two paragraphs are just explanation.

Researcher: Yes, they're giving you advice from Mouton, and then you're starting in three.

Sipho: That is what was queried by the examiners. You see, this research proposal is not the one that was...this was accepted, but it's not the one that is in my dissertation now. It's no longer this way.

Researcher: So what did they say...?

Sipho: Some sentences were taken off like these ones, this explanation. Yes. I was advised by those people, the examiners, to take off some, this explanation.

In the excerpt above, Sipho explains how some aspects of the proposal are weeded out in the evaluation process. He refers to this as the process of examining. This suggests that some of the hybrid discourse, which clashes with academic discourse, and was intended for a 'police audience' is removed from the final text that will become the dissertation. The difference between Sipho and Maggie is that he does not display the same agency when it comes to what should be included and excluded, and for which audiences he is writing. On the other hand, Maggie seems to have mastered the proposal genre style and its audiences. Sipho merely asserts that the examiners ordered him to

remove certain aspects of the proposal. Power is influencing both of them, but in different ways. Perhaps the hybridity was allowed in Maggie's proposal and less so in Sipho's case. In Sipho's case, the examiners of the proposal remove the policing discourses, while in Maggie's case the proposal accommodates the needs of the workplace. (It is not clear who removes some of the information from the proposals, anecdotal evidence suggests that some supervisors do change the proposal, out of the frustration with the poor quality of ODL students' writing).

6.9 The supervisor's perspective on the recontextualisation

I also wanted to see if my analysis of students' writing corroborated some of the views expressed by the supervisor. For example, according to Villa, policing is a fact-based writing. Here is how she puts it:

Because in the work situation, they write very differently. They write, point 1, fact, point 2, second fact, and so on, and they not required in the police to think for themselves. They mustn't give an opinion, its just a matter of this is the fact and that's the fact. So it's a big learning curve. (Interview with Villa, page 2).

This statement resonates with the interdiscursive analysis of the proposal written by Maggie and her own 'talk around the text'. It was observed that her proposal was written in point form, using bullets, until the supervisor intervened and advised her to change her writing style. Maggie also mentioned that police writing is 'definition-based'. The reasons for this have to do with the expectations from the police audience. This is then recontextualised in Maggie's proposal. In terms of the use of bullets and points, the supervisor indicates that she discourages this:

Villa: Well my students won't use it. I call it shopping list. They must rephrase into paragraph format for me. It's nonsense to give a shopping list. They must learn how to rephrase. I do exactly the same thing when I realize that the student is copying directly. I say put it in your own words, and acknowledge the source. They find it difficult, but then eventually they learn how to do it. And if they don't the study just dies a quiet death. (Villa, page 8)

Villa makes reference to her own style of supervision. She teaches the students how to write. She uses a strong word ‘nonsense’ that indicates her anger towards writing that resembles a ‘shopping list’. She says that if students are not able to learn to write academically, their studies do not progress.

An example of a discourse clash can be observed when the students start by ‘lecturing’ on sections of the proposal. Vinesh’s writing (and some of the case studies in Chapter 5) show this. Villa gave me an example of this below when responding to my question:

Researcher: But the one thing which was quite fascinating, across the proposal. There was a sense for me in which the students were writing as if they are speaking directly to the addressee. As you, for example, when doing a literature review, you should do that, you should read this...

Villa: I have seen that. It’s not my students. My students must all write in the third person. It must be some of the other lecturers. It irritates me, because its part of, if you can be objective in qualitative research. I think that’s one way of providing some distance, what students sometimes do in their proposals. Now I am a little critical of some of my colleagues proposals. They sometimes, the student almost like lectures. Leedy says a proposal should consist of A, B and C. That’s nonsense, that’s absolute nonsense. It should be apply what Leedy says, don’t say Leedy says you must do this and that. I think its supervisors that are not managing their students well, I think its supervisors that have not been trained well, and I think their own masters and doctoral studies have not been of a high enough standard. So they perpetuate and continue with the bad practices that they were exposed to, and if I sound a bit snobbish here, excuse me. (Villa, page 5 and 6)

I asked Villa to comment on the notion of addressing the audience and the use of second person pronoun ‘you’ in a genre of an academic proposal. (‘You’ was used by Vinesh above, who was supervised by Menzi). I describe this as a discourse clash. It is an example of a tension when writing the proposal. In another topic on the writing of the section on ‘Key Theoretical Concepts’ in the proposal, Villa equally blamed her colleagues. (This did not occur in Maggie’s writing, but it did occur in the other proposals). The linguistic analysis revealed that some of the KTCs are borrowed from the workplace. Student interviews also confirmed this. Villa’s response is interesting:

Researcher: What I found is that some of the concepts are borrowed from the workplace, like cluster or domestic violence, I could not see the theory part that links with the research?

Villa: I think and I sound very critical now. Some of my colleagues think it's okay to use one source, when they define a key concept. I suggest to my students that they should be at least 3 sources, one must be an international source, I mean not South African, the other one must be a South African one, and the third one must be a workplace source for example an Act, or regulation or whatever. For example, if a student wants to do sector policing in Tembisa, there would be one concept, that would be Sector Policing, and for that the student must go and look at the regulation in the police because that is what he or she is going to do. (Villa, page 7)

Villa insists that her students must use three sources, one must be international, one from South Africa and the third one must be from the workplace. This suggests that the workplace is important in providing definitions for the selected KTCs. It is an important source in the discipline. Students are supposed to understand the theoretical and practical significance of the concepts that they choose to define. For most of the students this is a challenge. The challenge comes from the fact that their research is at the intersection of the workplace, profession and the university. I noticed that students could easily identify a workplace source, such as an Act, or regulation or even a policing term like 'cluster', but failed to use other sources from local or international research, and were also unable to address the theoretical dimension of the research during the semi-structured interviews.

6.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, I compared and contrasted Sipho and Maggie. The first theme that I identified from Sipho's writing was discourse relating to service delivery and the provision of justice, which intersected with academic discourse. This is instanced in the 'Background and rationale for the research' and the 'Value of the research'. Modality is the analytical tool that indicates discourse clashes. During the talk around the text, Sipho revealed that he drew from the workplace context. His comments during the interview on the meaning and the choice of his KTCs suggest that he may not fully comprehend the purpose of this section of the proposal, as outlined in Tutorial Letter 101. His opinion was that it refers to terms that are always used in the proposal and in

the dissertation. Sipho's use of policing vocabulary, such as 'investigate' overlaps with academic discourse when he writes the aims of the research, suggesting that his proficiency in English as a multilingual writer may not always be adequate for conventional academic discourse. His writing is drawn from his position as a station commander responsible for the handling of domestic violence. He justifies this in the talk around text as a way of 'getting results'. His choice of vocabulary is rather limited and repetitive. Sipho is not as expressive as Maggie, probably due to a lack of sufficient language proficiency and a stronger police culture influence. He does not have the same meta-reflective awareness about his writing.

In contrast, Maggie's written proposal begins by drawing from post-1994 discourses of transformation, identified in the 'Background and Rationale for the Research'. It is instanced through manifest intertextuality of the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security (DSS, 1998), and the former minister's strategic objectives for a post-apartheid democratic South African Police Service, as opposed to the 'Police Force' which operated during apartheid. Maggie's talk around text relates this to the service delivery and crime prevention discourses and to the police force's changing organisational identity, as a result of SAPS reforms since 1994.

Maggie mentions that she does this for her audience that comes from 'another world'. Her views reveal the fact that her proposal serves different purposes, functions and interests. Her strategy suggests that she draws on resources from the workplace and professional context to shape her academic research proposal. I explain Maggie's discourse practices as a reflection of the PWU hybrid model. This can be explained by the close link between style and audience or addressivity (Bakhtin, 1986) and further reveals the challenge of students, who cannot imagine other audiences from other contexts. The student may not be able to imagine several audiences. In addition, the issue of ethics or permission for the proposal impacts on a proposal's generic features and suggests unequal power relations between the various contexts. Maggie also reveals some mismatches between her expectations and the writing support that she obtained from Unisa. This is an issue that I expand on in the implications of my study.

The two students display different ways of borrowing. Sipho employs more manifest intertextuality from the workplace, while Maggie tends to use more 'interdiscursivity' originating from the PWU. Both students use recontextualisation and hybridity as a

strategy in negotiating academic literacies, although Sipho sometimes displays less agency when responding in the interview. Interestingly, Sipho mentions that during the adjudication process/assessment of the final proposal, some of the extracts from his proposal were removed. In Chapter Four, I mentioned that assessment of the proposals is not always transparent. This is an issue that I return to in Chapter Seven.

Chapter 7

Conclusion and Implications for Research Writing

7.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter One, I first became interested in policing postgraduate academic literacies as a teacher, but later evolved to become a researcher. Both teaching and research are central to my investigation. The main objective of the research was to describe and explore how professional and academic discourse practices amongst MTech Policing graduate students intersect in their research proposals. Professional and academic discourses represent a broad area that has been researched and taught in many fields. However, my interest was on the research proposals written by MTech Policing students. These students come from diverse backgrounds and occupations. My approach was to first understand what students bring along, and explore some of the challenges they experience through a discourse analysis of their writing. I therefore explored notions of tensions, discourse clashes, transitions, and intersections between various discourses. My research used various theoretical lenses taken from critical discourse analysis, together with ethnographic framing.

The research proposal is a key document that is used within both the workplace and academic institutions as a symbol of one's acceptance to conduct research. In most Masters and Doctoral programmes, students are assessed on account of the research proposal in order to proceed to candidacy. As institutions open doors to more students and widen access to higher education, it is necessary to investigate this genre, and how it impacts on postgraduate research writing. At the moment, Unisa MTech Policing students have to first write a proposal. University guidelines and interventions, together with supervision, appear inadequate to prepare students to succeed. In the literature, the research proposal is described as a contested genre, a gatekeeping mechanism, and a means of entering the conversation (Cadman, 2002; Allison, 2003; Clark, 2005). There have been calls for more research investigating the academic literacies of postgraduate students, using the academic literacies approach. Having witnessed accelerated changes in the context of higher education policy in SA (Higher Education South Africa [HESA], 2014), and some of the challenges experienced by the diverse student intake,

my own work has been to provide academic literacies support to postgraduate students. I therefore start by giving an overview of the findings, and then discuss possible implications for teaching proposal writing at an ODL institution. In presenting the conclusion, I follow the same cumulative approach to my data chapters, that is, first a discussion of the contexts or ‘worlds apart’ in Chapter Four, a review of the tensions described in Chapter Five, and some considerations of the discourse clashes and other academic literacies strategies of academic writing, such as, recontextualization and hybridity.

7.2 Worlds apart: Police values versus academic values

There is lack of cooperation or partnership between the workplace and the university. Partnerships are instrumental in ensuring successful research within Mode 2 knowledge according to Gibbons et al. (1994) and in the PWU model. The two supervisors, who were both ex-policemen, provided insights into professional police values and academic discourse practices. They observed that the police paramilitary subculture manifests in the presentation of students’ academic work through the subjectivities on display in assignments. They described the police culture as anti-intellectual and anti-education. For example, this is seen in the manner in which students are not encouraged to pursue advanced studies. Students may be denied study leave, or permission to study. They work long hours, and do not get enough time to rest and do their studies.

If one compares the expectations of the students and the supervisors, there seem to be mismatches. These mismatches manifest in the functions of the proposals, either in the policing context or a corporate context. There also seems to be lack of trust by students, who hold senior positions in the police, towards those supervisors who had no previous experience as police officials. This lack of trust is caused by the clash of knowledges between academic knowledge and workplace knowledge.

One interesting observation was how workplace knowledge and gender influences the relationship between a supervisor and students. Gender and workplace knowledge are linked; female supervisors who lack practical experience as police officials face challenges and tensions when supervising senior ranking male officials in the SAPS. South Africa still faces challenges of patriarchy and gender inequality in the workplace. Male domination is likely to affect how students view female supervisors. However, the

appointment of the current female national police commissioner, General Rhia Phiyega, is a step in the right direction. Gender attitudes tend to manifest strongly when the students select or refine their research topic, or even when they respond to critique from their supervisor.

Another interesting observation was how criticism in general, as well as academic criticism, can be viewed negatively by the police organisation (SAPS). Both the interviews with the supervisors and my interaction with the students confirmed that certain research topics are censored and labeled as sensitive or classified information. This happens despite the rigorous process of obtaining ethical clearance. The normal procedure for obtaining permission for conducting research entails submitting applications and documents, and attending meetings with SAPS. Once permission has been granted, researchers have to comply with the Access to Information Act, a government legislative requirement for all people who need to use information from SAPS. In the case of students who work for the private sector there are different procedures of getting approval for the research proposal. This process underscores the ethical powers that are always vested in the workplace for all kinds of research in the case of these students.

There was also a general consensus among the students and supervisors from the workshop observation that due to the police culture of ‘command and control’ and discipline, one was not allowed to criticise aspects of the organization. Criticism could lead to expulsion. This acts as a constraint on the pursuit of academic research and knowledge production in terms of freedom of expression, autonomy and critical consciousness. Criticism is censored, and often penalised within SAPS. Students and supervisors provided examples of those who had been expelled and those whose research had been ignored. These incidents are worrying because they suggest a hiatus or ‘friction’ or ‘tenuous connection’ (Northedge, 2003), expressed by discourse clashes at the level of relationships between academic and workplace sociocultural contexts. These findings build on White (2006) and Adlam (1999, 2002), who observed that police culture is at odds with the academy. This manifests in unequal power relations, as to who can criticise, and whose voice counts.

In South Africa, police culture and police conduct has been under scrutiny since the advent of democracy in 1994. There have been ongoing discussions as to whether police

should hold civilian or military ranks. This has resulted in the opposing political discourses of service delivery versus the apartheid perceptions of the police as a force (c.f. Chapter 2). The current government is in favour of a discourse related to service delivery, in line with democratic values, yet at the same time they still want to maintain the military culture of the police, with the view that it is effective in crime prevention. This often results in a conflicting relationship between the police and the public, such as the 16 August, 2012 killings of protesting miners by the police in Marikana. Furthermore, police are sometimes blamed for poor training because of the history of the police. Some members of the police, for example Sipho in this study, were part of the homeland apartheid policing establishment. Although they had been inadequately trained, these homeland police officials, and municipal police were all made part of SAPS after the 1994 democratic elections. Therefore, the socio-political ideology from the workplace is more influential than the academic values and affects the professional practices of the police.

The theme of tensions between workplace operational concepts and academic research theoretical concepts demonstrated the differences between the PWU model. Tensions seem to be a useful way of describing the ‘conflicts/clashes’ (Gee, 2012:159). According to Gee (2012: 59), discourses are ideological and empower those groups who have the least conflicts with their other discourses when they use them. In other words, the degree of conflict between prior discourses and university discourses can either be extreme or limited. For example, the paramilitary discourse within the police is bound to clash in many instances with academic discourse. New Literacy Studies, e.g Lea and Street (1998), view tensions as an issue of power relations, epistemology or identity. Based on the different values and cultures coming into contact, some of the discourses are bound to be ‘incommensurate’. For example, if there is absence of cooperation, collaboration between the police organisation and the academic institution, students experience more of the alienation, divergences, and tensions, and therefore the two worlds are apart. It then becomes a student’s agency to negotiate the meaning-making practices, and discursive practices of the workplace and the academic context. A key strategy (described below) of how students do this is through harnessing the resources from both sides, recontextualising them and in the process, using hybridity in academic literacies.

7.3 Tensions when using concepts from the workplace in academic writing

The majority of students drew on workplace operational concepts. These concepts were borrowed without reference to the research and theoretical relevance within the study, an expectation of myself as an academic literacies practitioner. This is in line with Mode 2 knowledge. Through intertextuality, these concepts move from the workplace to the academic context. Intertextuality can be hegemonic. For example, the way that the students select material for inclusion in the proposal suggests that the workplace is a dominant influence and that the police identity manifests strongly when they write their proposals.

In academic writing of a proposal, there is always plenty of manifest intertextuality. What was interesting for this study was finding out the types of documents that students drew on when choosing their KTCs. I observed that sometimes students used workplace documents, such as the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), municipal documents (e.g. Nelson Mandela Metro Area), the Constitution, SANRAL and Kwazulu-Natal Department of Transport documents, and certain legal documents that are specific to SAPS, including those that are strategic or operational. This suggested that workplace and professional documents had a larger influence on the students' writing than academic research literature. I argued in Chapter Five that these documents were drawn from Mode 2 knowledge. I used the Mode 2 knowledge model to classify so-called 'knowledge in action' (Gibbons et al., 1994; Barnett, 2000). The KTCs were workplace concepts, and therefore came from practical knowledge, as opposed to theoretical knowledge. Shay (2013) explored a model of knowledge to address curricula that drew from both practical knowledge and theoretical knowledge for professional and vocational qualifications. In my research, although the students labelled their terms as key theoretical concepts, they in fact did not appear to be theoretical, rather they were practical and operational. I observed that work-based concepts such as 'cluster' and 'Nelson Mandela Metro Area' were presented as KTCs. It is interesting to observe how police students' everyday workplace experiences cross over to academic discursive practices and academic research proposals. This makes the delineation between academic and workplace discourses a 'slippery' task.

From the interviews with the supervisors, I found that there is an assumption that students should be able to navigate this knowledge dimension, and that they do not need guidance in academic writing. Supervisors confirmed the work-based and practice-based nature of the research, at times alluding to the divide between theory and practice, making a strong inclination towards the latter. Several themes were identified from the interviews with the supervisors. For instance, one supervisor explained how she insisted that students should base their research on their work, in other words research their own practice, and that the MTech Policing degree has a proclivity for practice-based research (Mode 2 knowledge), rather than theoretical research (Mode 1 knowledge).

My findings revealed tensions associated with researching one's own practice. For example, students are required to use the third person point of view in order to be 'scientific' and 'objective' in the MTech degree. I observed some discourse clashes with this, for example, in the manner in which students discuss their first-hand experience in the workplace, using the third person, e.g. 'the researcher'. This is what Clark and Ivanic (1997) call the self as author. To me, this appears to be a difficulty faced by the students in taking a particular subject position in relation to Mode 2 knowledge. When I queried this, supervisors equated it to scientific or objective writing, and mentioned a technique called 'bracketing'. This is one area which suggests that there may have been misunderstandings between myself and the supervisors, because I conclude that this has to do with knowledge and self-representation, whereas they view it as a lack of understanding of research. As highlighted in the literature, this is often difficult for students who are immersed in the world of practice. They are expected to demonstrate Mode 1 knowledge in their research, when all they are familiar with are 'practice-based' and 'work-based' concepts. This echoes Aitchison and Lee's (2006:268) observation that the problems of knowledge production, text production and self-formation are complexly intertwined at the point of articulation. My research reveals the interdependence between knowledge, genre, and identity, all of which form part of discourse.

7.4 Discourse clashes and boundary crossing through recontextualisation

As mentioned above, I found that students used concepts and terms drawn from the workplace context when writing the proposal. This suggests a movement across the workplace boundary to the academic context. Adlam (1999, 2002) was useful in setting boundaries, such as, police culture versus academic culture, and not crossing them. He is one of the international studies I have cited for understanding police culture, and the education of police officials. I then used Lee et al. (2000) to explore ways of crossing the boundaries, intersections, transitions, and translations. I also found that students do not fully comprehend the guidelines in Tutorial Letter 101 pertaining to the KTCs. This lack of understanding resulted in students relying solely on workplace documents and technical terms and not on the research literature, as stipulated in the Tutorial Letter.

The interdiscursive and intertextual analysis of the students' literature review sections in Chapter Five shows how different elements of discourse conventions, such as starting by defining a literature review, drawing from self-help literature, performing a didactic function, are all embedded in the professional and workplace identity of the writer, in some cases, in the writer identities, for example autobiographical, discursal self and self as author. Due to these multiple sources of influence, I explained these as 'discourse clashes'. My data analysis shows that the students' proposals are rich in intertextuality and interdiscursivity. This is illustrated by students who draw on discourse conventions and discourse types resembling those of the police institution, and they reflect the police profiles that I described in Chapter Five. Examples include Rick as a captain in a police station in Port Elizabeth, and Anele as a warrant officer in a township in Port Elizabeth. Maggie's case is different because she moved from SAPS to the corporate mining sector, where she is responsible for security. Therefore, she still interacts at a professional level with SAPS. Maggie's writing was influenced by professional public/oral presentations. Her writing demonstrated a hybridisation of discourses from the workplace, for example service delivery discourse (mentioned during the interview), law-enforcement discourse, and academic discourse.

In Chapter Six, the recontextualization process analysis revealed that Sipho's use of modality and vocabulary is drawn from his professional duties in investigating domestic violence cases in his local station as a station commander. Sipho's borrowing from the

recommended texts in Tutorial Letter 101 (and so on), demonstrates intertextuality rather than interdiscursivity. In contrast to Maggie, Sipho reveals less agency, at times limited and imitative, but is more reliant on the police context, and on ODL guidelines. On the other hand, Maggie seems to treat the whole proposal by considering the differences between a proposal in her workplace and the academic institution. Her words: ‘I was not to forget that my reader comes from another world,’ indicate an awareness of genre differences between a corporate and an academic proposal. This illustrates the challenges that students encounter when studying through an ODL institution. Maggie is suggesting a stronger awareness of her workplace audience than her academic audience. The proposal’s structure and content is influenced by the expectations of Maggie’s mine employers, than the lecturers who assess it at the university. This suggests the hierarchical position of power that some readers hold. The PWU model illustrates what happens when the proposal has more than one target audience. The supervisor is part of the academic discourse community, in which Maggie is an apprentice and a novice. Other members of this discourse community are the professors, researchers, and examiners who may read her research proposal. This community reads and evaluates the proposals. These audiences wield different degrees of power over the style and genre of the proposal. One is more powerful than the other. The power is in sanctioning ethical permission, and in determining the generic shape of the proposal, e.g what to include and what to exclude. The academic institution has a gatekeeping function, in the sense that if students do not conform to the institution’s academic conventions their studies may not continue. This would result in denying students access to postgraduate higher education, and consequently defeat the NDP’s targets of postgraduate throughput, and render ineffective policy documents both from Unisa and government, which seek to increase access and redress past injustices.

Studies of interdiscursivity have tended to be more descriptive, particularly those in the professional context, for example Bhatia (2010). On the other hand, studies in an educational context have looked at the more productive use of these discourse conventions in the creation and interpretation of academic literacies, for example Cheng (2007:303) identifies the key elements of recontextualisation as the students’ abilities to use any generic feature in a new writing task, ‘but to use it with a keen awareness of the rhetorical context that facilitates its appropriate use.’ In my research, I explain how recontextualisation strategies, such as imitation and transformation, are used by Sipho

and Maggie, respectively. Maggie's recontextualisation strategies are influenced by professional procedures and practices, such as her ability to compare the structure and rhetorical goals of a corporate versus an academic proposal. Maggie differs from the other students in that she displays influences from all three PWU contexts. This raises the issue of how hybrid forms of knowledge result in hybrid forms of writing. Hybridity suggests more agency and strategic use of terms by the students. This is discussed in detail below.

7.5 Hybridity as a strategy in research proposals

Hybridity can lead to miscommunication (e.g. when researchers or supervisors (mis)judge what students have written) and also to a particular interpretation of the expectations and purpose of a proposal (why students write in a particular way). In a sense, in my findings in this study, I move from the former to the latter. In my initial analysis of hybridity in Chapter Five, I describe it as discourse mixing, a mixture of genres and discourse types. In Chapter Six, I shift to the second meaning of hybridity, in line with postcolonial views, for example Canagarajah and Lee (2013) and Williams (2003), who view hybridity as strategy.

My findings were that hybridity can be found in the literature review sections of all the students. This was described as the influence, transference and borrowing of self-help discourse conventions, for instance, following advice functions of self-help literature, and from Tutorial Letter 101. Students borrow and/or voice some of the workplace discourses, such as those associated with commanding and instructing, typical in a policing role. The majority of the students imitate the self-help literature, what I call the advice function, or procedure for academic writing. They do this in a unique way by imitating the procedure in conducting a literature search. In a way this reveals the identity of the writer, which is a slightly different way of conceptualising the 'discoursal self' and the self as author. While the use of self-help literature has been criticised, for example by Kamler and Thomson (2006), it is not the self-help literature itself that is wrong, however, the up-take of this literature by the MTech policing students reveals more about the influence from other discourse types. For example, Rick (one of the students) displays a hybridisation of discourse types in his writing. The investigative procedure discourse, seen in giving orders, is mixed with academic discourse. This leads to the appropriation/imitation of workplace discourses, and the voicing of personal

workplace police ranks, seen in the dual intertextual positions of being both a student writer and a police captain. In addition, Maggie uses an interdiscursive mix of corporate, crime prevention, and academic discourses. Thus, students appropriate workplace and professional discourses and then remake them for the purpose of academic discourse.

Hybridity can be a strategy of constructing academic literacies. In this research, students are invested in the workplace, and in their professional contexts. Hybridity is shown in the style and rhetorical strategies employed when students address their audience(s). This was seen in the didactic functions in some sections of the literature review of the proposals, in the imitation of self-help literature, and in writing in PowerPoint/bullets/fact-based writing, and point form style. Maggie's use of a workplace style and genre shows that we cannot describe students writing as good or bad; we need to uncover the meaning-making social practices, and relate these to genre. It is not enough to simply expect students to follow the format and structure of a proposal; they are already invested in the workplace. Students need to be taught the functions of a proposal, and the expectations of the audiences. They need to explore the epistemologies, power and identities. Williams (2003:605) observes that 'such an exploration of ideology and discourse will almost inevitably lead to questions of response, mimicry, hybridity, and resistance.'

In the literature, I focused on discourse communities, for example Swales (1990) and Johns (1997), but signaled the difficulty in setting boundaries between communities. Although language is one of the characteristics of communities, there is also other social stuff (Ivanic, 1998:37). Therefore, the view of language as a social practice was adopted for the research. I also discussed the conflicts within the boundaries in discourse communities. Interestingly, the concept of a discourse community seems to be stronger in the case of the police workplace context and the students who come from there. This is because of the unique police subculture and the values in this context. When students move to the academic discourse community, they have to constantly navigate the clashes of cultures, discourses and knowledges. Thus hybridity becomes a useful way of negotiating academic literacies.

There are few guidelines in the literature on how interdiscursivity can be harnessed in academic literacies. I suggest that hybridity is one of the notions that brings forward this type of 'intertextuality'. The key issue seems to be how to conduct practice-based or

work-based research, in such a way that academic literacies specialists like myself can comprehend what is going on. The mere fact that I get invited to support students in academic literacies is an indication that supervisors are unable to address the problem. Students are not given clear guidelines on how to follow the correct academic conventions in writing their proposals, and this is partly why the Lee et al. (2000) model and the concern with research literacies is relevant. I suggest some of the implications for pedagogy below.

7.6 Enabling the transitions: Police postgraduate academic literacies in an ODL comprehensive university

ODL poses a challenge in the initiation of students into the academic discourse community. Students are physically distant and also transactionally distant, in the sense of prior discourses and the new discourses that they need to acquire. The ODL context also adds other challenges because the student only relies on printed material when writing the proposal. Furthermore, students do not experience a sense of belonging or membership of the academic discourse community, since they are often far removed from their supervisors. Postgraduate students who study part time draw on multiple discourses, and support when writing. The input from the academic context is one of the sources of influence. Students then remake and reuse some of the discourses, in what can be termed transitional discourses or ‘transdiscourse’. In addition, the supervisors are not applied linguists and therefore may not be able to understand such linguistic processes. This is demonstrated by some of the views that they aired during the interviews.

Postgraduate students have to do independent reading as part of ‘research literacies’. Some of the supervisors were of the view that the postgraduate students were ‘underprepared’ when it comes to research reading and writing. They based this on the lack of relevant textbooks, and negative attitudes towards education by senior police officials based within SAPS. The supervisors also commented on the disciplinary discourses. Two supervisors observed that they were writing a textbook because of the non-availability of relevant policing textbooks. One supervisor observed that discourse clashes emanate from students not being able to use social science textbooks. Currently, students rely on social science research methods textbooks for their research; as these textbooks are prescribed for social science students, they may not be suitable for

policing students. It seems that this absence of relevant textbooks also affects the BTech and undergraduate students in terms of readiness for postgraduate studies. These students' may be unfamiliar with accessing 'academic discourse' from the textbook genre in general.

This dissertation has described the challenges MTech Policing students face with academic literacies at the interface of the three contexts (PWU), although mainly the workplace and university contexts. Unisa is a comprehensive ODL university that offers professional, vocational and academic qualifications. This has implications for the type of knowledge that is offered in the discipline. The MTech degree is both professional and vocational. The research topic is based on the workplace. In addition to that, the research topic has to be approved by the SAPS provincial research management commissioner, before the supervisor at the university can proceed with the proposal. (This applies in the case of students who are working for SAPS). Secondly, the problem statement, or the concerns that the proposal is based on are workplace matters, such as human trafficking, domestic violence, and crime prevention. Scott et al. (2009:146) observe a similar scenario, stating that 'these sites are interdependent in that workplace knowledge provides the context in which particular forms of pedagogy are enacted and influences what those forms might be; and in turn feeds back into the research site,' when describing the professional engineering doctorate. As mentioned in Chapter Four, the PWU sites are not that easily separable.

Lee et al. (2000) use the PWU model in the teaching of proposal writing. This PWU model is relevant in discussing research literacies for the MTech degree. My research has revealed the centrality of Mode 2 knowledge at the intersection of the three circles. In terms of the MTech curriculum this shows the 'push and pull' forces from the workplace and professional context. This raises questions about the MTech curriculum. It currently runs as a 'full' Masters research programme (MRes) course, but should be more aligned to the Practical Masters (MPrac), which is offered at universities such as UKZN. It would seem that Unisa as a comprehensive university, and also as a custodian of the former Technikon SA MTech degree, is offering a Research masters (MRes) to students who are professionals, where one would have expected a Practical Masters (MPrac). Since the nature of knowledge is unclear, this impacts on the professional literacies and workplace literacies. A key issue that was raised in Chapter Two was around the debates on policing as a profession. The lack of a clear demarcation or

delineation of the profession leads to the binary between workplace and university. This research has combined CDA (Fairclough, 1992) and the Lee et al.'s (2000) hybrid curriculum model with an ethnographic framing. This is a productive way of understanding the research literacies. I see Fairclough's model as an over layer of the PWU model, as part of teaching proposal writing in the MTech. This model can then take on board both recontextualisation and hybridity above.

7.7 Reflecting on the findings

I have already reflected on the research process in Chapter Three. As an academic literacies tutor, I underestimated the impact of the PWU contexts on proposal writing. This is important because both the workplace and university contexts add different dimensions to discourse communities. Shuttling between contexts and discourses for most students i.e. the transitions, the trajectories, is more important than shuttling between languages (Canagarajah, 2006). Some of the students' deficiencies in academic discourses are usually identified as resulting from students' difficulties associated with being speakers of English as an additional language. However, this does not reveal the issues that my research has uncovered, when investigating issues of contexts and discourses.

Adlam's (1999, 2002) notion of clash of knowledges is fascinating for me as a linguist. I went in to the policing discipline with my own assumptions of what academic literacies should be, and what the supervisors expect. This research has uncovered some of the disciplinary practices around the MTech degree. My pre-understanding of the research proposal during the pilot study was at variance with the expectations of the supervisors. I tended to have normative views on the proposal, which were shaped by my background in applied linguistics, and minimal ethnographic research at the time. I came into the research with strong views, opinions and judgements about what a proposal should be like, about the quality of writing, and the students' command of language. As the research proceeded, and illuminated certain findings, I later refined these and selected analytical concepts for the study.

At the start of my research, I was working with two categories of both knowledge and discourse, namely professional and academic. However, later, when using the PWU model, it became important to distinguish between professional and workplace. This of

course may be what is referred to as Mode 2 knowledge. In my research, perhaps, workplace knowledge is largely practical, whereas professional knowledge is more theoretical (Shay, 2013). In fact, the concept of Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledges does not address the issue of professional knowledge adequately. However, due to the under-representation of the professional context in my data, I ended up finding more data on the workplace and the university, and also had to maintain the use of Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge rather than moving towards other theories of knowledge. Only one student, Maggie, seems to amplify aspects of the professional context.

7.8 Implications for teaching writing in an ODL context

In order to teach writing to MTech policing students, I propose the following strategies:

1. The interviews with the supervisors revealed a lack of consensus on the disciplinary academic norms and conventions. This has to be negotiated within the discipline. It is possible that the ‘practice’ nature of the discipline poses a challenge. For instance, some of the requirements for academic writing that the students are given, e.g the obligatory use of the third person, and the appeal to objectivity, may contradict the situatedness and epistemology of policing practice. As observed by San Miguel and Nelson (2007), when writing about nursing practice, research writing poses challenges for professionals, when their daily experiences have to be translated into another person’s point of view and conform to scientific rules of objectivity. Currently, the discipline of police falls under the School of Criminal Justice, a sub-division of the college of Law at Unisa. In my research, I observed that this discipline draws from both social science and legal studies. While some supervisors are more in favour of social scientific methods of research, others feel that social scientific methods are inadequate and therefore should be replaced by new textbooks, which would be more relevant in addressing the needs of policing students, for example the law enforcement nature of policing. This tends to be the views of those supervisors with previous police (workplace) experience, versus those without policing experience.
2. Research literacies have to be developed amongst students. A research identity is necessary for research writing. This will alleviate some of the discourse

clashes, or ideological clashes at the level of writing as a social practice. The University of Adelaide in Australia uses a tool called ‘the researcher skill development framework’. What is key is to develop students as researchers and scholars, beyond focusing on the proposal genre. This may be more important for ODL students because their identities as students are often overcome by their professional identities, family roles, workplace positions and so on. Perhaps this is why the supervisors keep emphasising that interventions should focus on research methodology, designs and paradigms.

3. The proposal genre needs more explicit teaching than what is currently offered at Unisa through collaboration between discourse specialists and content specialists. Tutorial Letter 101 contains useful information on the proposal genre, as discussed in Chapter Four of this dissertation. However, the Tutorial Letter is inadequate when it comes to genre awareness and genre acquisition. Genre awareness can be partly addressed by improving the reading abilities of students. Reading skills for the MTech students may not be at a sufficiently advanced academic literacies level to enable them to transfer their knowledge and to be able to produce their own proposal texts. However, genre knowledge is inadequate without intertextuality, that is the ability to draw on outside sources and to reference appropriately. Genre and intertextuality are two dimensions of the process of reading and writing. One author observes: ‘It is important to fit into the demands of the genre and to observe the requisite moves and components of the text. It is also crucially important to incorporate previous writing and reading and present it in such a way as to create new meaning’ (Holmes, 2004:80). Therefore, a pedagogy that foregrounds intertextuality is crucial in the context of postgraduate students. Online writing workshops, using Adobe seminars, Mendely and Skype, based on the theories of intertextuality, starting with textual borrowing (i.e. not only concerned with warnings of plagiarism) are proposed. These workshops could be based on the following questions, addressed to students’ needs: What sources did you use/reuse in your research writing? Why? What was the purpose of including this material?
4. In connection with point 3 above, intertextuality can also inform writing instruction, especially because of the intersection between the PWU contexts. There is a need to harness the resources which students bring along, and to use

them in the co-construction (supervisors and students) of academic discourse in postgraduate research writing. Intertextuality and interdiscursivity can inform writing instruction because of their ability to combine both reading and writing. Students already borrow from many sources, e.g workplace documents, and Tutorial Letter 101. ‘Instruction that explicitly accounts for the intertextual nature of literacy knowledge would therefore focus on identifying existing knowledge of texts, expanding students’ intertextual histories and building discourse knowledge’(Jesson, Mcnaughton & Parr, 2011:68). Bakhtin’s (1981, and 1986) views on dialogicality and multivoice are the bases for developing a pedagogy of intertextuality. This can also be linked to the appropriation of discourses and discourse conventions, to link to interdiscursivity. For example, drawing on discourses is part of the epistemology of the students and therefore what academic literacies is about. This includes the writer’s identities (Clark & Ivanic, 1997). Questions such as the following can develop teaching points for students: What resources are students bringing? Are there any conflicts or is there resistance? How is knowledge constructed in the PWU?

5. Teaching of academic writing citation practices, such as summarizing, quoting, and paraphrasing has to be integrated into Tutorial Letter 101, and other ODL methods of writing instruction. Interestingly, none of the students in my sample use quotation marks in their proposals. My research was not concerned with inappropriate citation, and proficiency in ‘Standard English’, an area that cannot be ignored when students learn Academic English. Current postgraduate pedagogies of writing groups and writing circles, have not been explored within the ODL context. I recommend that the department and the university should investigate the possibility of synchronous or asynchronous online workshops, and an online tutor/ writing centre for teaching of the writing process. In the Tutorial Letter, there is no mention of the writing process. Students who are not familiar with writing as a process tend to undermine stages like proofreading, revision, and editing to the point of thinking that they should outsource them from other providers.
6. Tutorial Letter 101 gives checklists in writing the proposal, which are almost like self-tick boxes for all the sections of the proposal. I recommend that these checklists should be expressed as the criteria for assessment or the criteria for a

good proposal. Currently, there is no mention of the criteria used to assess students' proposals. Some studies refer to an assessment matrix of research proposals, for example Velautham and Picard (2009). Boote and Beile (2005) suggest an assessment matrix for literature reviews. Designing of rubrics and assessment of proposals in a collaborative teaching approach between academic literacies specialists and discipline specialists would have to be conducted jointly. I think the current assessment practices of research proposals are not transparent, since they depend on committees and institutional powers. This is where power plays a role, and why research proposals become a 'contested genre'. There should be less emphasis on the Tutorial Letter 101 as a teaching document because it leads to students 'copying' and regarding the document as 'norms'. It should be substituted by encouraging 'talk around texts' in order to uncover the social practices influencing reading and writing.

7. Supervision models for students may have to be negotiated between the students, the academics and the workplace. The literature on postgraduate supervision in an international context (e.g. Norway) refers to three models of supervision. These are the teaching model, the partnership model, and the apprenticeship model (Dysthe, (2002:518–519). In the case of the Mtech Policing degree, there is a need to negotiate a formal agreement between the different contexts: Professional, Workplace and University. Such a policy would inform the association between the workplace and the university, so that students are not left on their own to negotiate the tensions and discourse clashes in research writing. The policy would include the requirements of the proposal and outline the assessment criteria. As previously mentioned with regard to some of the professional doctorates, students get co-supervisors from the workplace; the audience for their proposals and dissertations are other professionals, rather than academics, according to the literature on professional doctorates. This could enhance better partnership between the university and the workplace, in this case between Unisa and SAPS. The role of the workplace and profession in the PWU model needs further investigation, as I point out below.

7.9 Further Research

Evidence from this research suggests that students recontextualise workplace discourses, resulting in discourse clashes between what the student writes, as opposed to what is expected by the supervisor and by academic literacies practitioners. These discourse clashes were explored through my analysis of their writing, and other sources of data within the discipline (e.g. students, academics and tuition). It seems that more research on the police academic discipline and its research literacies could shed further light on students' writing practices. There is a need for collaboration between academic literacies practitioners and discipline experts. This collaboration should be aimed at the teaching and research nexus (Velautham & Picard, 2009). The research would deepen the understanding of the professional discursive practices of students. Further research should also seek to describe the issues around audience and power relations between the PWU. There is a need to understand the influence or impact of multiple audiences and different power relations within PWU.

This dissertation has discussed, among other things, the challenge of distinguishing between the profession and the workplace, as the two overlap significantly. This is important because MTech students' research writing is integrated with work-based activities. Students should be made aware of the difference between Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledges. Some students struggle to distinguish between research, theory, practice, and policies. There is a need for more research in the area of police academic discourse and professionalism. The literature has demonstrated that there is no consensus on policing as a profession. However, there are ongoing calls to professionalise the police. On the other hand, there is a need to conduct more research on professional degrees in a comprehensive ODL institution. Unisa is also going through changes as it adjusts to the demands of higher education in SA, and the increased student numbers. As a leader in ODL in the country, the university has to also improve the knowledge of its academics on curriculum issues that impact on academic literacies. This would then further enhance the understanding of professional literacies and academic literacies.

This research has contributed to an understanding of the role of context in the analysis of academic writing. More ethnographic research on multilingualism could shed light on the language practices of postgraduate MTech students. Perhaps this would also

contribute to multilingual pedagogies, and an understanding of the resources that students draw on in research writing in English.

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Appendix A: Extract from Tutorial Letter 101

5. Value of the Research

You should indicate how the study and its results will benefit the research community/ South African society/industry/commerce/Unisa/the discipline. The contribution of your study should be described in terms of knowledge (e.g. is this study contributing new knowledge or confirming existing knowledge?) and the beneficiaries (who and how). You must make it clear why this problem is worthy of scientific attention.

6. Key Theoretical Concepts/Constructs of the Study

The problem statement contains a number of concepts that should be defined clearly. You have to provide accurate and unambiguous definitions of the most important concepts and ensure that these concepts are used consistently throughout the research dissertation.

The definition of key concepts is necessary to identify related research and to place the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. It involves two steps:

- a conceptual or theoretical definition,
- an operational definition.

The conceptual or theoretical definition should be derived from the literature. An operational definition assigns meaning by specifying what must be measured or assessed or how it should be measured or assessed. In this case, it is also important to substantiate all facts and to acknowledge all sources consulted.

7. Literature Review

The aim of the literature review is to provide a sound theoretical overview of existing research findings and theories or models on the specific research problem. It provides a conceptual framework for the reader to understand the research question and the methodology.

You should give a clear indication, on the basis of the literature that you have studied, that you are familiar with and understand the problem and the research area. You should present the latest research findings and developments in the research area (references to recent textbooks and journals are usually a good indication of this). You should indicate how the findings are similar and/or relevant to your project, and how these works are similar to or/and different from your research. Be selective and critical and use only relevant findings.

Appendix B: Interview prompts for the supervisors

Experience of postgraduate supervision

- How long have you been supervising students? Perhaps share some of your training.
- Have you been a police before?
- What are some of the challenges of supervising MTech postgraduate students?
- What are the frustrations?

Experience of academic writing

- What problems do students experience when writing the proposal?
- What are their challenges with academic writing?
- What could be done to help students cope with these challenges?

Discourse practices and values in the MTech degree

- How does the supervisor teach students differences between the work and academic requirements?
- How do workplace writing practices impact on academic writing?
- Can students distinguish between the researcher's professional duties and research for the degree, especially in the case of student number 5? (No. 5)
e.g In student number 5, it is fascinating that within the methods of data collection, it is not clear whether observation is research based or it is part of his professional duties.
- How does the degree ensure that there is a difference between what students are doing for work and that which is manageable, and doable for an MTech degree?
e.g How do students delimit the aims and objectives of the research? Some of the aims are perhaps broad and borrowed from organizational objectives. (No. 7)
- My reading of some of the proposals suggest a perception from the students that it is the purpose of research to 'provide justice' and 'service delivery' or does this idea come from the professional context ?
e.g sample for the proposal
- How do you feel about the use of the 2nd person pronoun? (you...No. 6)
- Are there distinctions made between the third person and first person point of view in the students' proposals?
e. g Student number 7, switches between the third person and first person point of view.

Generic Features of the Proposal

- Are students given subheadings for the proposal?
- Are students allowed to add their own subheadings? Or to even alter the sequence of the subheadings, as it was observed to a lesser degree among some of the proposals?
e.g my illustrative analysis suggests that probably students are given subheadings as a way of guiding the structure of their proposal but they misinterpret the meanings of these.

e.g In most instances, there is an attempt to first define the subheading and then moving towards applying it into their own research, are supervisors aware of this (sub-generic) structure within the proposal?

- “What was your expectation for the way in which students would deal with the Key Theoretical Concept subheading?”
- How do Key Theoretical Concepts relate to the rest of the proposal?
- Do there have to be some link to the rest of the proposal?
- Are supervisors aware of plagiarism?
e.g The three theoretical concepts defined under the student’s title of KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS are ‘cluster’, ‘domestic violence’, and ‘domestic relationship’. These appear to be concepts borrowed from the workplace and the student does not indicate how they are relevant to the study.
- Do you think students understand the difference between literature review and methodology?
- Why would the literature component form part of the research methodology?
e.g ‘A variety of sources, namely, official documents, records, manuals, directives of the SAPS, academic and law enforcement journals, books, articles, and information published on the Internet, are employed during the study. De Vos (1998:90).’ (student No.2)
- How do you feel about the use of bullets? (e.g No. 2)
- Do students understand the concept of validity and reliability?
- Do students understand population and sampling?

Appendix C: Interview prompts for the students

Biographical questions

1. Some profile of the student; position, rank, managerial (senior, mid and junior). What are some of your duties?
2. What languages do you speak? Home language, first additional language/second language.
3. Describe your educational background.
4. Why are you doing the MTech Policing degree?
5. Why have you chosen UNISA?
6. How do you feel about Open and Distance Learning?

Textual History/Generic

7. What kinds of writing do you do at work? Or what kinds of writing is done in the police context?
8. Who or what has affected the way you write? what you write?
9. How is this writing similar to (or different from) your typical writing?
10. What previous writing experiences did you draw on in writing this piece?
11. What has your supervisor said about your proposal writing?
12. What challenges did you experience when writing the proposal?
13. Where do you get help if you get stuck? (books, people, supervisor)
14. Are you allowed to add your own sub-headings or to alter the sequence of the sub-headings in your proposal? How rigid are they (supervisors) to sticking to these subheadings?
15. How do you feel about the use of bullets in your writing?
16. In most instances, there is an attempt to first define the subheading and then moving towards applying it into their own research, why do you do that?
17. How do Key Theoretical Concepts relate to the rest of the proposal? Do there have to be some link to the rest of the proposal?
18. Can your research in MTech deliver in providing justice in the police? If so how?
19. How do you distinguish between your professional duties and your research? Can your research 'provide justice' and 'service delivery'? can you draw boundaries between your work and your research?

Individual-specific questions

20. Why would student number 4, put the subheading like 'value of the research' towards the end of the proposal? (between validity and ethics), indeed the headings are also coined slightly differently, maybe suggesting that the supervisor uses different headings or that the student coined her own headings. Similarly, student number 2, starts the proposal with aims and objectives, followed by the value of the research and the key theoretical concepts.
21. Why did you write in bullets/point form? Student number 2, why did you use bullets on page 2, e.g the value of the research? Were you not supposed to write in prose?
22. Why would the literature component form part of the research methodology or the research design? (student number 4) or to some the data (student number 2, 6, and 7).
23. Does the research or how does the research improve service delivery? (student number 5, value of the research)
24. How do you distinguish between your research and your professional duties?

Student number 5;

OBSERVATION :

Observation will be done at major incidents that presents itself. Researcher will identify the shortcomings / good practises presented. This observation will be conducted within the Province of Gauteng during a stipulated period.(page 8).

25. Can you explain what you meant about these challenges facing sector policing in your organization? (student number, 6)

The challenges of Sector Policing are as follows:

- Power struggle for leadership of the Community Police Forum
- Personal Political agendas of individuals within the structures.
- Lack of commitment towards the concept of Sector Policing.
- The cunning strategies and tactics of the criminals to influence all policing activities to achieve their own objectives(pg 5)

The negative impacts are political interference, power struggle, lack of commitment and lack of resources. The research will improve the understanding of the concept of Sector Policing. It will improve possible implementation in Midrand. This will also be a possible best practice and may be utilised by the Policing Precincts in South Africa with similar environments. (Student Number 6, pg)

[MORE QUESTIONS WILL BE BASED ON AN INDIVIDUALS PROPOSAL]

Appendix D: An example of the workshop programme

Workshop programme Research proposal writing
Campus

Venue: Unisa

Sunnyside

Department Police Practice

Walker Street Sunnyside Pretoria

6 – 10 June 2011

Timeline	Monday 6 June	Tuesday 7 June	Wednesday 8 June	Thursday 9 June	Friday 10 June
09:00 – 10:00	Orientation and research proposal landscape	Ethics in research	Presentation of individualisation of Tuesday's learning	Presentation of individualisation of Wednesday's learning	Presentation of individualisation of Thursday's learning
10:00 – 10:30	Break	Break	Break	Break	Break
10:30 – 11:30	Research paradigms	Research question Problem statement Aim and goals	Sampling frameworks Qualitative Quantitative	Data collection Qualitative Quantitative	Evaluation and closure Overview of the research proposal writing process
11:30 – 12:30	Academic writing	Literature review			
12:30 – 14:00	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
14:00 – 16:00	Academic writing	Library and data bases	Individual guidance supervisor / student Facilitators: All Masters'- supervisors	Individual guidance supervisor / student Facilitators: All Masters'- supervisors	

Appendix E: An example of a student's proposal

THE ROLE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE INCIDENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEM IN GAUTENG

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
MAGISTER TECHNOLOGICAE
in Policing

SCHOOL OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

DEPARTMENT : POLICE PRACTICE

UNISA

SUPERVISOR :

THE ROLE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE INCIDENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEM IN GAUTENG

1. BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION :

Incident Management on the roads are important so that there is one set of protocols for the Management of Incidents. Everyone adheres to the respective protocols. Teamwork between the Multi Disciplinary Organisations is encouraged. It also establishes an agreed set of formalised alternative routes to use in the event of a freeway closure. Incident Management is initiated when the first responder on scene assumes co-ordinating function and a Management Team consisting of representatives of Emergency Services is formed. All information is thus communicated to the Centralized Communication Centre.

In this proposal the problem statement will be given. The research aims and objectives will be specified and the value of the research stipulated. The method of data collection, target population and sampling as well as data collections and analysis will be identified. It will also include the methods that ensure validity and the ethical considerations of the research. The time frame, cost implications and research structure will also be indicated. It will conclude by recommending an action plan for the implementation of Incident Management System in the Province of Gauteng.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT :

The South African Police Service (SAPS) is tasked by the constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 in Chapter II Section 205(3), to prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain Public Order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of South Africa and their property, and uphold and enforce Law. (South African Police Act, 1995)

In the later part of 2007, a Sub Section of Police Emergency Service, known as Specialized Uniform Support, became an additional responsibility of the Unit as per the Provincial Structure. One of the tasks in this section is the SAPS Road Safety Strategy.

Since then the SAPS mainly the (Police Emergency Services) have networked with many multi disciplinary organisation to promote Road Safety and Law Enforcement. In Gauteng Province there is the National Road Network as well as a number of Provincial and Metropolitan routes.

The two main approaches is that of Crime Prevention and Crime Investigation (The Police Act, Act 51 of 1997) thus it is the Department of Transport's goal and mission to ensure the safety of all people who utilize Road Network in South Africa (Stanway, E, 1995:2).

The problem to be studied in the envisaged research is that the SAPS in Gauteng Province does

not have people with the necessary knowledge and skills to deal with Incident Management because of a gap in Police training. The purpose of Incident Management is to establish one set of protocols. These protocols have been agreed to and are adhered to by all Emergency and Secondary Services involved with the management of major incidents. Thus Incident Management will promote co-operation and positive communication between multi disciplinary response teams.

The need to develop and implement Incident Management in Gauteng, has certain challenges / limitations which can be described as follows :-

- Gauteng Province does not have a Centralised Communication Centre (CCC) to deal with incidents such as multiply vehicle collisions, hazardous material spillage, etc. At this stage calls for help from Emergency Services are being duplicated. Various Government Departments and Emergency Services function on different radio / communication systems. There is no Interrelationship between the Network Management Centre (NMC) based in Midrand and other Emergency Control Rooms. There is a need to integrate its technology with existing technologies.
- The fact that Incident Management System is voluntary, it is found that there is a lack of commitment from multi-disciplinary agencies. It is seen as a secondary function and not part of their line function. There is inconsistency at meetings regarding representation. A huge number of in-house problems exists.
- Each incident differs in nature and severity. “Local” Resources can sometimes prove to be inadequate, both in terms of capacity and capability for example, the planning of the alternative routes to be used in the event of a road closure should lead to the identification for the manpower required to divert traffic onto these routes as well as descriptions of what manpower should be employed to achieve this. Some Emergency Services are working under crisis conditions such as lack of resources, lack of properly trained personnel and lack of specialized equipment.
- The issue of areas of jurisdiction has been a source of conflict because it was found that there are grey areas which is regarded as no mans land. Municipal boundaries, when translated into responsibility for sections of a Freeway are often not clear. The fact that Emergency Service response is often based on a “line draw on a map” and not on the reality of which service is able to respond the fastest, can also be problematic.

§ Incident Management System works very well in Kwa-Zulu Natal but not so well in Gauteng. The reasons why it works well there is because Incident Management is humanity driven, experienced based and relationship sustained. Key people still exist in the Province of Kwa-Zulu Natal and function in advisory capacity. Individuals from KZN will be interviewed in order to determine their best practices.

- Most incidents (especially those on Freeways) can have serious direct consequences, primary as well as secondary effects. Thus there is a dire need for personnel on an operational level to be constantly trained in Incident Management System from all multi-disciplinary agencies.

Incident Management System has been implemented throughout South Africa, covering well over 10 000 kilometres of National Road Network. This system is in line with **South African Government Policy**. Considering that Gauteng is the economic hub of South Africa and the 2010 World Cup which will have a major impact in this Province in terms of traffic volumes. Due to this, the implementation of Incident Management System in Gauteng will have profound benefits as well as restore normal capacity and safety levels to all affected road facilities as quickly and efficiently as possible.

The blue code strategy is aimed at saving lives, curbing crime, improving service delivery and improving co-operation.

The research question in this study is what are the role of the SAPS in Incident Management?

2.1 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES :

Aim :

To identify what the role of the SAPS is in an effective Incident Management on major routes within the Province of Gauteng in line with the SAPS blue code strategy.

Objectives :

- To identify what the SAPS role is in Incident Management.
- To assess the knowledge and skills SAPS members possess in Incident Management.
- To provide guidelines for SAPS Response to incidents that involve dangerous goods.
- To identify international best practices on the role of the police in Incident Management.
- To make recommendations based on the results.

3. VALUE OF THE RESEARCH :

The value of the research will be important to the SAPS. The research will help members at operational level to apply what they learn when attending to any incident whilst on duty. The knowledge gained will certainly improve service delivery in respect of the emergency response to attendance and on scene crime investigation and recording of road related crime (in this instance, Cas Docket Road Accidents). The outcome of this research would certainly lead improved integrated co-operation between the SAPS and other stakeholders / role-players (Government and external to Government) involved in Road Safety, Highway Safety and Accident Management.

4. KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS OF THIS STUDY :

There is a number of concepts in the problem statement which will be clearly defined.

4.1 INCIDENT MANAGEMENT :

According to the Guideline Document by SANRAL (2005 :9) Incident Management is the process whereby a set of co-ordinated activities is initiated in order to minimise the direct and secondary effects of an incident, as well as to restore normal capacity and safety levels to all affected road facilities as quickly as possible. Stanway (1995 :1) defines Incident Management as a preplanned, agreed set of procedures and protocols activated when an incident occurs. It co-ordinates the responses of all Emergency Services to the scene of an incident and provides a mechanism for efficiently managing the scene of an incident. Its aim is to clear the road of any obstruction and to restore traffic flow to normal as quick as possible.

If these two definitions are taken into account, it can be said that Incident Management promotes co-operation and positive communication between multi-disciplinary response teams involved with the management of major incidents.

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY :

5.1 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN :

Research methodology is the means to explore unexplained and misunderstood phenomena. Through the use of methods and techniques that are scientifically defensible, we may come to conclusions that are valid and reliable (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:9). The purpose of quantitative research is to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers while qualitative research deals with subjective data that are produced by the minds of respondents or interviewers (i.e. Human Beings) (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:8). This research will be conducted on a qualitative method.

5.2 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING :

A population is the study object and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events or the conditions to which they are exposed. A population is a full set of cases from which a sample is taken. (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:52). The target

population is the designated members of the various Police Emergency Response Service Units, currently attached to the Provincial Task Team in Gauteng. There are 15 members that are attached to the Provincial Task Team. They will be included in the individual interviews. The population will include two Project Managers from the South African National Roads Agency Limited based in Northern Region of Gauteng and the Eastern Region of Kwa-Zulu Natal. The elements of the population will also include two members from Pietermaritzburg and Durban Accident Combatting Units, based in Kwa-Zulu Natal.

The Sampling that will be used in the individual interviews are as follows :

- \$ Provincial Task Team which consist of 15 members - “Saturated Sampling”.
- \$ 6 to 8 Specialists - “Expert Sampling”.
- \$ Observation at major incidents during a specified period - “Purposive Sampling”.

The sample will be representative of the population in its entirety. The sampling is used due to the fact that the population group is known and demarcated. Semi-structured individual interviews will be held with the Commanders of each Accident Combatting Unit. This will give a basic sample that is the same in most aspects.

5.3 **METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION :**

There are various forms of data collection methods that can be used in qualitative researches :-

- Individual interviews.
- Observation and participant observation.
- Focus group interviews.
- Using personal documents.

I will be making use of the first two forms of data collections.

5.3.1 **INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS :**

Semi-structured interviews will be used with two identified project managers from the South African National Roads Agency Limited. These types of interviews are extremely helpful in the exploratory research that will be conducted. These key informants who, on account of their position and experience will have more information than the regular group and will be able to better articulate this information.

Semi-structured interviews will also be done with each of the commanders of the two Accident Combatting Units in Kwa-Zulu Natal. During these interviews the objective will be to explore their views of how they see the SAPS role in Incident Management.

5.3.2 **OBSERVATION :**

Observation will be done at major incidents that presents itself. Researcher will identify the shortcomings / good practises presented. This observation will be conducted within the Province of Gauteng during a stipulated period.

The observation will be done as unobtrusively as possible. Notes will be taken during observation about different aspects. The researcher can intermingle with the participants but not interact. The observation will enable the researcher to see what type of incidents are presented.

5.4 **DATA ANALYSIS :**

Qualitative data use textual data (documents, texts and interview transcripts) as a basic units of analysis. To analyse the data collected, the Tesch eight-step process of analysing will be used (Technikon SA, 2001:62) :-

- \$ Get a sense of the whole.
- \$ Pick a document from a transcribed interview, read through it carefully and identify its meaning.
- \$ Make list of topics and cluster them together.
- \$ Code the same information.
- \$ Categories them by grouping them together.
- \$ Make final decisions and alphabetise the codes.
- \$ Assemble same categories and do preliminary analysis.
- \$ Recode if necessary.

This analysis will be used due to the fact that all of the data is textual data. It can then be qualitatively analysed into manageable themes. The interviews will be recorded on tape and transcribed before they are analysed. Field notes will be made during the observation, which will be analysed.

5.5 METHODS USED TO ENSURE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY :

Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and relates to the credibility of the findings. (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:145).

Validity refers to the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation. (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:142).

In my methodology I will operationalise the concept of triangulation as follows :

- § Sampling & Data Collection Method.
- § Source Triangulation (Literature, Best Practises, Data Collection).
- § Member checking (Establish correct Interpretation).

To make sure that the study that is done is valid and reliable, the researcher will be using a qualitative approach in an exploratory way. The random purposive sampling will be applicable during observation of major incidents. The saturated sampling technique and expert sampling will be used in the individual interviews.

In the individual interviews semi-structured interviews will be done where the same questions will be asked and the member will be given a chance to voice their own opinions. I will also adhere in terms of the copyright Act 98 of 1978 also acknowledge sources consulted.

5.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS :

The ethical code of conduct regarding research by Unisa will be adhered to. I will also adhere to the ethical code of conduct as stipulated in Section 70 of the Police Act 1998. I will keep the identity of participants anonymous and confidential by coding the interviews and focus group participants. I will make certain that the participation is voluntary and obtain their consent by making an informed decision especially in the individual interviews where the interviews will be recorded on audio cassettes. The participants will also be informed that they can withdraw whenever they want. I will adhere in terms of the Copyright Law and acknowledge sources consulted. I will also obtain permission from SAPS Head Office for the study as well as the Head of my department.

6. RESEARCH PLANNING :

6.1 TIME-FRAME (SCHEDULE OF PROGRESS) :

October 2008 - January 2009

Make arrangements and appointments to do the research at suitable venue for the interviews. Formulate an interview and observation schedule. Draft chapter 1 and 2.

February - March 2009

Do the in-depth individual interviews (approximately total of 15 interviews).

April - June 2009

Do the observation of major Incidents that present itself. Transcribe the interviews. Analyse the information received.

July - August 2009

Write chapter 3 and 4.

September - December 2009

Write chapter 5. Writing up and finalising of dissertation.

6.2 COST IMPLICATIONS :

Telephone calls and Internet : make appointments with participants and search on Internet for literature review	R 1 500-00
Travelling costs : for interviews and observations	R 3 000-00
Transcribing of interviews	R 2 000-00
Editing and proofreading 150 pages	R 2 000-00
Printing and binding of dissertation R 300-00 per dissertation x 4 copies	R 1 200-00
Analysis of data	R 2 000-00
TOTAL	R 11 700-00

7. **RESEARCH STRUCTURE (CHAPTER LAYOUT) :**

- Chapter 1 : Orientation and introduction chapter
Chapter 2 : Nature and extent of the problem
Chapter 3 : Literature review
Chapter 4 : Presentation of the results of research
Chapter 5 : Interpretation of the findings
Chapter 6 : Summary, conclusion and recommendation

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Appendix F: Consent forms

Title of the study:

When Police become postgraduates: An Intertextual Analysis of Research Proposals in the MTech Policing at an ODL University

Dear prospective research participant

You are invited to participate in this research study. This information sheet is to help you to decide if you would like to participate. If you have any questions, which are not fully explained in this leaflet, do not hesitate to ask me.

The nature and purpose of this study

The aim of the dissertation is to describe and explore the relationship between discourse practices in workplace and academic contexts. In particular, I would like to analyze the interface between police professional and postgraduate academic discourse practices by using a case study of 20 proposals, and tracing intertextual links outwards into various discourse practice contexts, in order to understand postgraduate student writing in an ODL context and improve discipline specific research training.

Procedure to be followed

This study involves participating in an interview and talking about supervisor's experiences of supervising MTech Policing students. This interview will last for approximately 60 minutes and permission to use audio recording will be sought so that the researcher can utilize discourse analytical methods in the analysis of the data. The study will also involve the use of students' proposals and subsequent unstructured interviews with the students based on their writing. I will employ discourse analysis with ethnographic framing in my investigation of discourse clashes between professional and academic discourses. Findings from the analysis of the proposals may require further document analysis and interviews from the police professional and training context.

Risks and confidentiality

I do not foresee any personal harm that might be incurred as a result of participating in this study. The names of the participants will remain anonymous. I will use pseudonyms in order to protect the identity of both students and supervisors, and other research participants.

Possible benefits of the study

In the findings of this research, I will be able to describe academic discourses, and the use of the English language in both academic and professional contexts in the MTech Policing. This will contribute to mediation of writing instruction in an ODL context. It will also contribute to addressing literacy instruction for Police postgraduate students. The main benefit is in describing the intersection between professional and academic discourses within students' writing.

Informed Consent Form

- I agree to participate in this research project.
- I have read this consent form and the information it contains and had the opportunity to ask questions about them.
- I agree to my responses being used for education and research on condition my privacy is respected.
- I agree to my writing (proposal) being used for the purpose of this research.
- I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this project.
- I understand I have the right to withdraw from this project at any stage.

Signature of Participant: _____

Name of Participant: _____

Signature of person who sought consent: _____

Name of person who sought consent: _____

Date: _____

Appendix G: Permission Letter

To: MTech Student

Permission letter for PHD data collection

I am currently collecting data for my PhD studies at the University of Cape Town. My research topic is; 'When Police become postgraduates: An intertextual analysis of research Proposals in the MTech Policing at an ODL university'.

This research is based on postgraduate students at the University of South Africa (UNISA) who are studying the MTech degree in Policing/Forensic Investigation. The aim of the dissertation is to explore and describe the difficulties and challenges MTech policing students experience with academic writing and how to overcome them.

I request to have an unstructured interview with you about your MTech proposal writing. The interview will be about an hour. This information is going to be used in writing the PhD dissertation only. Research ethics are going to be observed and explained to you before the beginning of the interview.

I look forward to getting feedback on my request or a meeting to further explain my request. I am happy to travel to a place that is convenient to you.

Yours faithfully

Sibusiso C. Ndlangamandla

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